

J. Kenner.

THE MARKETS.

SMITHFIELD MARKET.

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COVENT GARDEN MARKET.

HUNGERFORD MARKET.

THE supply of a large city like London with provisions seems at first sight, to be a subject replete with difficulties. Experience has long shewn that legislative enactments, unless under very peculiar circumstances, have always failed of producing any good results, or have done much mischief. It is one of those things which must be left unrestrained; and which gives a pretty good illustration of the working of free trade, where the circumstances of all parties, as to rent, taxes, &c., are nearly the same. Two things seem sufficient to regulate this momentous affair, so as to produce a regularity only surpassed by the accurate and unerring machinery of the earth and heavens. One party has certain articles of food to dispose of, and is acquainted with the means by which this may, to a certainty, be done. Another party wishes to possess certain articles of daily consumption, and he, in his turn, knows how they may be obtained. By the action and reaction of these two simple principles, or facts, the supply of London with provisions assumes a certainty which nothing can excel.

It is, notwithstanding, a work of some difficulty to estimate the exact amount of provender brought into London. The larger markets will, doubtless, give an approximation to the real amount; but the means of bringing in supplies have become so multitudinous, that considerable allowance must be made for them. The cattle and poultry, for example, arrive

in the metropolis from very distant parts, not merely from England, but from Scotland, Ireland, the continent of Europe, and even from the United States. Much of this supply, particularly during the winter months, is brought in dead; and, being often consigned to private individuals, does not come into a public market at all. A very large trade is in this way carried on by higglers, who perambulate the town once or twice a week.

It may be further remarked, that while the additional facilities for conveyance have brought various articles of provisions from very long distances, which otherwise could not have appeared in a London market; yet, that the same facilities have also taken away the superfluities of a redundant market. For example, formerly the vegetable market, in the height of the season, frequently had a superabundant supply, which at the close of the market was disposed of, on the spot, at any price which it might fetch. Now the extra supplies may be started off to the larger towns, at a remote distance from the metropolis, and which tends greatly to prevent that inequality in the prices which formerly existed. It has a tendency also to equalize country markets.

In estimating the quantity of meat consumed in London, it must be recollected that, from the great attention which has for the last few years been given to breeding and feeding, the size of the cattle, as compared with those of former years, has been greatly increased. About the year 1700, the average weight of oxen sold in the London market was 370lbs.; of calves, 50lbs.; of sheep, 23lbs.; and of lambs, 18lbs.: the present average weight is, of oxen, 800lbs.; of calves, 140lbs.; of sheep, 80lbs.; and, of lambs, 50lbs.

The only market in London for live cattle is Smithfield.

Leadenhall and Newgate markets are the great depôts for slaughtered meat, poultry, butter, cheese, and eggs. Billingsgate is the principal wholesale market for fish. Hungerford is more of a general market, including meat, poultry, fish, and vegetables. The markets for vegetables and fruit are Covent-garden, Spitalfields, the Borough, and Farringdon.

The following is an estimate of the annual supply of butchers' meat sent to Smithfield market, for London and its vicinity.

	Average weight.	No.	No. of lbs.
Oxen	640lbs.	180,780	115,699,200
Sheep and Lambs	96lbs.	1,360,250	130,584,000
Calves	140lbs.	22,500	24,448,512
Swine	96lbs.	254,672	3,150,000

Number of lbs. of meat consumed 273,881,712
 Averaging 136lbs. of meat to each individual in a year, estimating the population at 2,000,000.

This does not include either the killed meat sent to Newgate and Leadenhall markets, or bacon and other salted provisions, which would amount, together, to not less than one-eighth more.

The annual value of poultry, game, and rabbits, amounts to, at least, £170,000.

The consumption of butter, annually, is estimated at 21,000,000lbs. The consumption of cheese, for a year, to 26,000,000lbs.

The principal wholesale market for fish is Billingsgate; but the consumption bears a very small proportion to the quantity of meat and poultry. In Roman Catholic countries, the eating of fish, at particular seasons, forms part of the religion. Fish is conveyed to London either in smacks, or from Scot-

land, by steamers; or, from the nearer sea coasts, in vans. The annual quantity of fish brought to Billingsgate is about 120,000 tons. The following will shew the number of the different kinds:—

Fresh Salmon	45,446	Haddocks	90,604
Turbot	87,558	Mackerel	482,492
Cod	447,138	Lobsters	3,076,700
Herrings	3,366,400	Whiting	1,954,600
Sprats, Soles, Skate, &c. (bushels)	115,215	Eels (cwt.)	1,500
		Crabs	500,009

The town is supplied with milk by upwards of 11,000 cows, yielding, on an average, nine quarts of milk, each, per day, making a total of 8,212,500 gallons annually; and producing to the wholesale dealers the sum of £400,600, on which the retail dealers are considered to lay a profit of cent, per cent., exclusive of that supply furnished by *the black cow*, that is to say, New River, Thames, or other water. Large quantities of cream arrive in London, daily, from remote parts of the country.

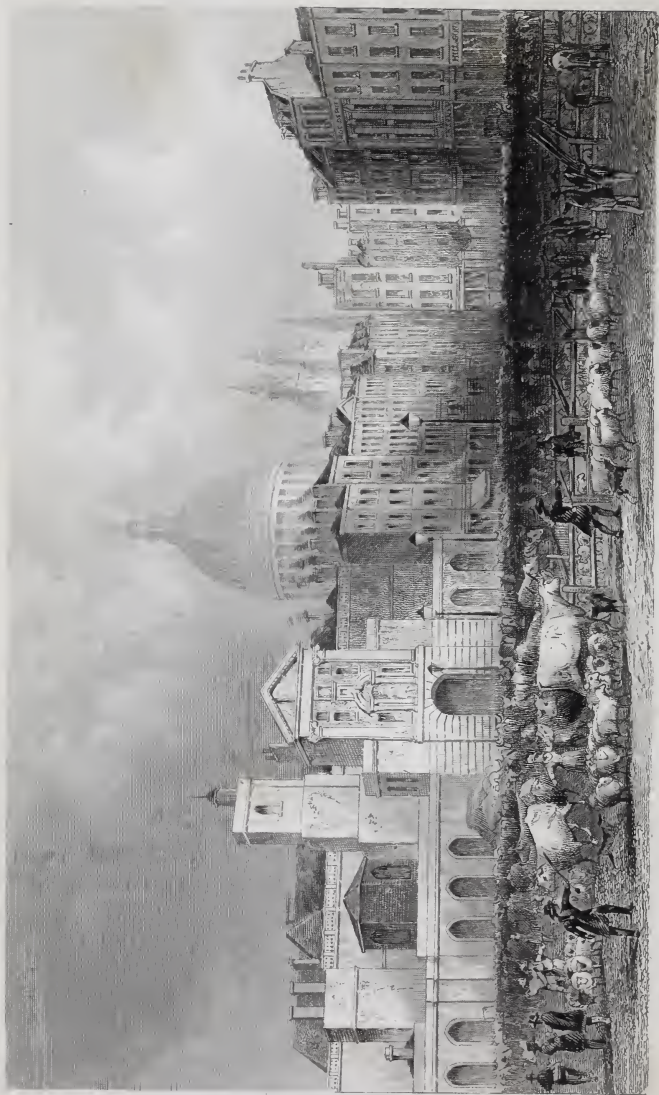
The supply of eggs from France, Holland, Ireland, Scotland, and England, amounts to many millions in number every year.

The value of the fruit and vegetables brought to London is believed to be more than £1,000,000 sterling.

At least 627,000 sacks and barrels of flour are required for the yearly supply of the metropolis with bread; or, nearly six millions of 4lb. loaves.

The quantity of ardent spirits consumed in London is immense. Gin has by far the largest sale; but that, with whiskey, rum, brandy, and various compounds, make up a very large total; viz. of foreign spirits, 1,270,931 gallons; and, of British spirits, 5,354,388 gallons.





The quantity of porter and other beer, forming the chief beverage of the working class, may be estimated by the amount of malt annually used in brewing; viz. 5,692,360 bushels.

The patrons of tobacco will scarcely think it possible that the quantity of *needless* sent out of stock for consumption, in London, during a year, amounts, of tobacco, to 3,636,362lbs.; and of snuff, to 1,181,723lbs.

And, lastly, the quantity of coals brought up the river, in a year, for the consumption of the metropolis, amounts to 2,581,085 tons.

A brief notice of the principal markets is all that we must add. A volume would scarcely suffice to give the history of SMITHFIELD as a place. Here, pastimes and tournaments, executions and punishments were once exhibited; now, a market is held, twice in every week, for the sale of cattle, once for that of horses, and thrice for that of hay and straw.

No spot in London is, perhaps, better known than Smithfield; and frequented by a class of men who, whatever feeling may be found amongst some individuals, estimate blows and cruelty by a different scale from other men. Drovers and slaughterers, whether from town or country, are out of the *pale* of common humanity. A single visit to Smithfield, on a market day, will convince the most sceptical of this fact. Much of the evil arises, we readily admit, from the contracted space employed, and from other circumstances purely local. So completely infected have the *pens* of Smithfield become, that scarcely a beast or a sheep, a calf or a pig, can enter into it without coming away diseased. To which must be added, the diminution in the value of the cattle, to the amount, it is believed, of £100,000 yearly, from the ill-usage which they receive from their merciless keepers

Why then, in the very centre of the metropolis, has such an abominable and dangerous nuisance been suffered to continue to the present time? If ever an *augean* stable required cleaning out, Smithfield is emphatically that stable. Yet every attempt to remove the market has hitherto proved unavailing. An effort was made, only a few years ago, by a spirited and wealthy individual, to establish a market which should conveniently hold double the number of cattle usually found in Smithfield. A convenient spot, of twenty-two acres, situated in the Lower-road, Islington, was selected, and every accommodation which skill and judgment could devise was provided, as well for those attending the market as for the cattle; but, strange to say, that although £100,000 sterling was expended upon this important and desirable enterprize, yet that it proved a complete failure.

Between the years 1802 and 1810, the city twice attempted to remove the market. Six applications were made to parliament for power to enlarge it; and three for its regulation. Still the nuisance continues. And who are the opponents to so necessary an improvement? The trustees of the RUGBY CHARITY, the BUTCHERS' COMPANY, the FOUNDLING HOSPITAL, the trustees of the HIGHGATE ROADS, St. BARTHOLOMEW'S HOSPITAL, the inhabitants of SMITHFIELD, and the CATTLE SALESMEN. Gracious heaven! And for what has all this opposition been made? For an irregular piece of ground, literally impregnated with disease, and long decried as the greatest possible nuisance, the area of which only comprises about three acres and a half, and that in the very centre of a densely crowded population! Fye upon it!

BILLINGSGATE.—This is the principal fish-market for the



THE TIMBLE



BILLINGSGATE

metropolis. The fishing-smacks can moor alongside the market, and supply their numerous customers with their cargoes. Fish are here, according to the season, always to be met with; and, under proper management, the citizens might be supplied upon moderate terms. But the Londoners are not a fish-eating people; and, therefore, though the rivers which intersect every part of our island, and the sea which surrounds it, are plentifully stored with fish of the finest quality, yet the consumption is comparatively trifling. A much greater quantity, it is believed, might be disposed of in the first instance, if sold at a moderate price; but, the price being always high, the fish is kept by the fishmongers until nearly in a state of putrescence, and then sold to the costermongers for almost nothing, who hawk it about the streets, selling it, in the more populous but poorer localities, at a very low price. Fish, in London, on this system, is always very dear, and very cheap.

Billingsgate, like Smithfield, is a disgrace to London, and source of derision to foreigners and persons coming from the country. Nobody would look for the principal fish-market of a great city in a narrow dirty street like Thames-street. And the eye which surveys the market can hardly believe that so little convenience should be found in a market of such importance. But, possibly, there may be some who are fattening in the accumulated filth of Billingsgate; and that another century may elapse before a thorough reform takes place in this eastern part of our great city.

But if the convenience of a spacious and convenient market is not to be found at Billingsgate, the visitor will meet there with a number of *aborigines*, principally females, whose manners are as fascinating as the filthy locality which they

occupy ; and who are as unchanged as the market which they frequent. The admirers of *volubility* of speech will not here be disappointed, added to which will be found a *vocabulary* of *small talk*, certainly not to be excelled, perhaps not to be equalled, throughout the whole of Christendom. The clerk of the market must often find it very difficult to preserve good order.

The wholesale market commences and terminates at a very early hour in the morning, hereby enabling the numerous country dealers to return home in good time.

COVENT GARDEN MARKET.—This market may be regarded, in more senses than one, the very *antipodes* of Billingsgate. It is in the western part of the metropolis, and offers every facility for the purposes for which it was designed. It is the property of the Duke of Bedford, who, only a few years ago, laid out the large sum of £50,000 upon it. The market was reconstructed from the designs of Mr. C. Fowler ; and forms three sides of a quadrangle, with a Doric colonnade running round it, supported by granite pillars. The wings have shops towards the square, and others looking toward the open market. In the centre runs a line of shops, collateral with the wings. The shops are roofed in, forming an inclosed passage from Great Russell-street to Covent-garden church. The supply of fruit and vegetables is of the first quality, and therefore commands a good price. The choicest and rarest fruits and flowers may be found here ; and, when money is not an object, the delicacies of every season may, at almost any time be procured. Over the buildings a large assortment of plants and flowers are kept, in two extensive conservatories, which are approached by a flight of steps from each corner of the wings. The spacious rooms are much frequented by many from among the upper classes.



THE GREAT HALL, LONDON

It is due to the noble proprietor to add, that everything is conducted with the greatest propriety as regards the shutting of the shops, and the general arrangements of the market. The market porters, whether male or female, are all known, and may be trusted. The utmost quiet prevails during the Sunday, the places of business being all closely shut, so as to prevent any desecration of the Lord's day. Covent-garden is a model of what other places of *public resort* should be. The yearly rental which the market produces is stated to be about £15,000.

HUNGERFORD MARKET, Strand.—The site of this market formerly belonged to a family of the same name, of Farleigh, in the county of Wilts. Sir Edward Hungerford, who was created knight of the bath at the coronation of Charles II., had a large mansion here, which he converted into tenements and a market. Over the market-house was a large room, called "The French Church," and which was occupied for some time by the parish charity school of St. Martin's in the Fields. On the north side of this building stood a bust of Charles II. The market having fallen into decay, and the buildings generally become very dilapidated, a number of gentlemen formed themselves into a company; and, under the sanction of an Act of Parliament, purchased the land, and reared the present market on a magnificent scale, regardless of the immense outlay. The market was built from the designs, and under the superintendence of Mr. C. Fowler.

The approach from the Strand presents, on the right and left, under piazzas of convenient elevation, a series of shops; those on the right being occupied principally by butchers, those on the left by vegetable dealers. The market, properly so called, consists of a nave and two aisles, the whole roofed

in, the centre roof rising above the other parts, and supported by open arches, for the better supply of light and air. The nave has a double row of shops, principally for the sale of fruit, vegetables, and flowers; the right aisle is employed chiefly for the sale of poultry, the left for fruit. Beyond the market, on either side, are entrances to the Charing-cross suspension bridge. A flight of broad stone steps, which divides right and left, conducts to the fish-market, which is considerably below the level of the general market. Here every convenience is afforded for carrying on an extensive trade, both wholesale and retail. The southern extremity of the fish-market leads to Hungerford-wharf and the Thames.

In such a situation, and with all the appliances for trade, many believed that the success of this enterprise was certain. But, long before the opening of the market, a storm had been gathering in the *east* against it. The *goths* of Billingsgate, with many of the principal salesmen and fishmongers of the west, exerted their utmost for its ruin; and, in a short time, their efforts were but too successful, since the wholesale market for fish was closed; and the *purlicus* of Billingsgate were actually illuminated to commemorate this event.

Neither have the other departments of the market been in a flourishing condition, the trade having been very inconsiderable. Two circumstances, however, have preserved Hungerford market from complete annihilation. The numerous steam-boats which depart from, and arrive at, Hungerford-wharf, every few minutes during the day, to and from the various places up and down the river, brings an immense number of persons to this spot, especially on Sundays. The opening of the Charing-cross foot-bridge has also been the means of bringing many thousands, almost daily, to Hunger-

ford market. Such an immense thoroughfare must have the effect of increasing the sales of the retail market; and the proprietors, we believe, already perceive a material improvement, by the receipt of a dividend, to which, for so long a period, they were strangers. Hungerford market may yet become a place of considerable importance and emolument, although in a very different way from what was anticipated.

THE STATUES OF LONDON.

STATUE OF QUEEN VICTORIA, <i>Quadrangle, Royal Exchange.</i>	STATUE OF THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON, <i>Royal Exchange.</i>
STATUE OF WILLIAM IV., <i>London Bridge.</i>	NELSON MONUMENT, <i>Trafalgar-square.</i>
STATUE OF GEORGE III., <i>Cockspur-street.</i>	WELLINGTON STATUE, <i>Hyde Park Corner.</i>
STATUE OF GEORGE IV., <i>Trafalgar-square.</i>	ACHILLES STATUE, <i>Hyde Park.</i>

LONDON, like most of the older cities of Europe, has been built without any preconcerted plan. The city, within the walls, is of diminutive size; but the ramifications of London, in the enlarged sense of that word, are of gigantic dimensions. Yet the habits and pursuits of the citizens have remained unchanged. The inhabitants of the city may not, as formerly, shut up both themselves and their families within the walls; the houses where their families reside may be at an *omnibus* distance from 'Change, and whither, by a sixpenny ride, they may, most evenings in the week, transport themselves. Still the Londoners are essentially what their ancestors were five centuries ago,—an industrious, money-loving, money-getting

people, and nothing else. Religion and morality, amusements and the drama, improvement and the arts, being alike overlooked by the diligent and thriving citizen. But this story can be better told by another's pen than by our own. A short quotation will suffice.

“ Where London's column pointing to the skies,
 Like a tall bully, lifts the head and lies,
 There dwelt a citizen of sober fame,
 A plain good man, and Balaam was his name ;
 Religious, punctual, frugal, and so forth ;
 His word would pass for more than he was worth.
 One solid dish his week-day meal affords,
 An added pudding solemnized the Lord's.
 Constant at church and 'Change ; his gains were sure ,
 His givings rare, save farthings to the poor.

* * * * *

Sir Balaam now, he lives like other folks,
 He takes his chirping pint, and cracks his jokes ;
 ‘ Live like yourself,’ was soon my lady's word ;
 And lo ! two puddings smoked upon the board.

* * * * *

Behold Sir Balaam, now a man of spirit,
 Ascribes his gettings to his parts and merit ;
 What late he called a blessing, now was wit,
 And God's good providence, a lucky hit.
 Things change their titles, as our manners turn .
 His computing-house employ'd the Sunday morn :
 Seldom at church, ('twas such a busy life,)
 But duly sent his family and wife.”

Pope's Moral Essays.

If such be the state of feeling, can we wonder every thing should languish in London, save money-making. Improvements, however have, of late, been made by the citizens. The building of London Bridge, the New Post Office and

the Royal Exchange, have already removed some of the rubbish with which the city was encumbered; and should the world last long enough, other improvements may follow, until the ornamental parts of the metropolis will not be overlooked.

Three things must strike the visitors of London in reference to its statues. First, that the statues in London are very few; next, that the older, and more valuable portion of them are not properly protected from injury; and then that some of the more modern specimens of art are in their execution singularly unfortunate.

We do not wish to see the metropolis of the British Empire crowded with statues of the gods and goddesses of ancient Rome, or with the popish idols of modern Rome; yet we see no reason why encouragement should not be given to living artists, for the purpose of perpetuating the memory of our great men, senators, scholars, divines, military and naval heroes, and others. To great men, the grateful remembrance of their country is due; and, in promoting the execution of such works of art, London should be found in the foremost rank.

And why should the statues of London be suffered to become dilapidated? Do our readers require a proof that such is the fact? Let them only give a glance at the beautiful equestrian statue of George I., in Leicester-square, which originally stood in the park at Canons, in Hertfordshire, to be convinced that our statues are shamefully neglected.

Of some of the modern statues, little, we fear, can be said but to their dispraise. The statue of her Majesty, in the middle of the quadrangle of the Royal Exchange, is any thing but pleasing. We fully appreciate Mr. Lough's talent as an artist; but, in the present instance, we regret to say that,

in our humble judgment, he has signally failed. A more *gawky* figure is no where to be found, excepting, perhaps, in the neighbouring statue of her Majesty's royal uncle, William IV., lately erected in King William-street, London Bridge.

The citizens of London may well be proud of the EQUESTRIAN STATUE OF THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON, which stands in front of the Royal Exchange. It is a statue of surpassing beauty and consummate skill, begun by the late Sir Francis Chantrey, and finished by Mr. Weekes.

THE EQUESTRIAN STATUE OF GEORGE III., standing at present in an open space near the bottom of the Haymarket, but which report says is about being removed to Trafalgar-square. It is cast in bronze by M. C. Wyatt, Esq. The horse is said to constitute one of the finest specimens of its class in existence. This beautiful statue owes its existence to private subscription.

At the north-eastern end of the terrace of Trafalgar-square stands the EQUESTRIAN STATUE OF GEORGE IV., which may be justly pronounced one of the *chef d'œuvres* of the talented Chantrey. The horse and his rider alike command a noble appearance, and will be the subject of admiration as long as the arts endure.

Whether the NELSON MONUMENT be in good taste, let others judge. We cannot help thinking that this fine colossal statue (eighteen feet in height) of the hero of Trafalgar, would have looked quite as handsome, and perhaps have been better seen, had it not been mounted on a fluted granite pillar, one hundred and fifty-eight feet six inches high. It must, however, be acknowledged that the column has a very imposing appearance from Parliament-street. This statue was executed by E. H. Baily, Esq., and does great credit to his taste and skill.



THE END OF KING WILLIAM.



THE MONUMENT.

Travelling further westward we arrive at the WELLINGTON STATUE, Hyde-park Corner, and at the STATUE OF ACHILLES, in Hyde-park. On seeing these the spectator can but exclaim—

“ The earth hath bubbles, as the water has,
And those are of them ! ” *Macbeth.*

And surely nothing was more unfortunate than the colossal statue of his Grace the Duke of Wellington. This mass, of eighty tons weight, though executed by an artist of acknowledged talent, and at a cost of £30,000, would be pronounced ugly any where, but perched upon the top of a splendid triumphal arch of elegant proportions, an entrance to the royal palace of Buckingham House stamps upon it a character of ridicule and deformity which nothing can surpass. It is, however, confidently asserted that this site is not to be the permanent residence of the *brazen* Duke, for that his royal mistress has expressed her disapprobation of it, and given orders for its removal. If so, the favorite rhymes which we learned in the nursery will become appropriate :

“ Humpty dumpy sat on a wall,
Humpty dumpy had a great fall,” &c.

What a pity it is that the public taste, and the public purse should not be better directed !

Of the absurd and singular statue which disgraces Hyde Park, executed by a late professor of sculpture in the Royal Academy—Mr. Westmacott, what can be said ? Why it is called Achilles, few can hardly guess ; but, if it represents a warrior, why give him a shield, but not a sword ? Another peculiarity of this statue is, that it was erected at the expence of the Duke of Wellington's *countrywomen*. We sincerely

recommend the women of England that the next statue which they erect, their subscription should be extended far enough to enable them to clothe *the naked, at least with a shirt.*

The inscription on the pedestal of the statue (which is of granite) will best tell the whole story:—

TO ARTHUR DUKE OF WELLINGTON AND HIS BRAVE COMPANIONS IN ARMS THIS STATUE OF ACHILLES, CAST FROM CANNON TAKEN IN THE VICTORIES OF SALAMANCA, TOULOUSE, AND WATERLOO, IS INSCRIBED BY THEIR COUNTRYWOMEN. PLACED ON THIS SPOT ON THE XVIII. DAY OF JUNE, MDCCCXXII. BY COMMAND OF HIS MAJESTY, GEORGE III.

We only add, that the total number of statues found in London, are somewhat less than twenty, half of which are either in a state of dilapidation, or a disgrace to the plots of ground which they cover. The citizens of London would do well to turn some of their money-making propensities towards the improvement of the statues of London, and the encouragement of the fine arts.

THE THAMES.

WITH NOTICES OF THE PRINCIPAL PLACES ON ITS BANKS, FROM WINDSOR
TO GRAVESEND.

THINGS are great or small by comparison. The Thames, when compared with the mighty rivers of America, Asia, or even of Europe, assumes but a humble appearance, and can only be regarded as a mere *rivulet*. The gigantic Mississippi, for example, deriving its source from the Red Cedar Lake, in latitude 47° 42', and longitude 95° 8', in a region where



an almost continual winter reigns, bends its tortuous way, according to Malte Brun's estimate, for four thousand three hundred and sixteen miles, or more than half the distance from the arctic circle to the equator, until it discharges itself into the gulf of Mexico, in a latitude where perpetual verdure reigns. In its course, it receives the waters of four noble rivers, with their tributaries; viz. the Missouri, the Ohio (bearing with it fifteen large navigable rivers), the Arkansas, and the Red River.

Or, would we compare Father Thames with the rivers of South America, his insignificance will become still more apparent. Take the majestic Maranham, or Amazon, which, perhaps, may be pronounced the prince of rivers throughout the world, running a rapid course of nearly five thousand miles. Rising in latitude $10^{\circ} 29'$ S., from Lake Lauricocha, in Peru, two rivers are formed, the Tunga-ragua and the Ucayale, which, uniting on the confines of Peru, produce the mighty Amazon. This river falls into the Atlantic by eighty-four channels, having, in its course, received nearly two hundred tributary streams. The Amazon, at its mouth, is one hundred and eighty miles broad, making the waters of the sea fresh four hundred miles from the shore.

So again, the Thames must not be brought into comparison with the rivers of Asia. The Ganges, one of the largest streams of India, has its source in the lofty Hymalaya, whither it has been traced by Mr. Fraser. It enters the plains of Hindostan at Hurdwar, between which place and its mouth, it receives, in the course of one thousand three hundred and fifty miles, eleven rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, and none smaller than the Thames, besides other inferior streams. At five hundred miles distance from the sea, when the river is at the

lowest, it flows in a channel thirty feet deep. The quantity of water discharged into the ocean by the mighty Ganges is computed to be greater than that of any other river in the world; the mean quantity throughout the year being nearly one hundred and eighty thousand cubic feet in a second.

But although the Thames by such comparisons sinks into insignificance; yet, considered in itself, and particularly in reference to the prosperity of London, if not of the British Empire, it must be pronounced a grand and most important river.

The Thames takes its rise in almost the central part of England, and flowing easterly, falls into the German Ocean after a course of about two hundred and twenty miles. The spring whence the Thames takes its rise, is about four miles from Cheltenham, and two from Cirencester, both in Gloucestershire. Two streams rise, one from what is popularly called *Seven Wells*, though really consisting of fourteen springs, and the other from four springs near Ullen Farm, the most westerly of which may be regarded as the real head of the river. Both these streams rise in the south-eastern slope of the Coltsfold hills, and form by their junction, about a mile from their respective sources, the river Churn. During the summer months this stream is not more than nine feet wide, but in winter it often becomes such a torrent as to overflow the meadows for many miles round.

From Somerford the stream runs to Cricklade in Wiltshire, being about twenty miles south-east from its source, where it also receives several rivulets. Approaching Kemsford, it again enters its native county, dividing it from Berkshire at Inglesham. It widens considerably in its way to Lechdale, ten miles from Crickdale, receiving on the way the Ray and the Cole, both on the south bank. Just above Lechdale the more important

tributary, the Colne, is received on the northern bank from the Coltswold hills, east of Cheltenham ; and just below Lechlade it receives the Lech, which also rises in the Coltswold Hills, and gives name to the town. Lechlade from its peculiar situation, where the counties of Gloucester, Berks, Wilts, and Oxford unite, and from the river here becoming navigable, and joined to the Severn by a canal, carries on a considerable trade with the metropolis, distant seventy-five miles.

After this junction, the stream bears the classic name of the Isis, flowing eastward fourteen miles to the junction of the Windrush, receiving smaller streams on each side. Below the junction of the Windrush the river makes a bend to the north receiving the Evenlade on its northern bank. The river now turns south, and flows to Oxford, where it joins the Charwell. The length of the stream from the junction of the Windrush to that of the Charwell is thirteen miles. The Charwell joins the river on the left bank.

From the junction of the Charwell, the river flows sixteen miles south east to the junction of the Thame, on its north bank, at Dorchester, bending considerably west to Abingdon, where it receives the Ock, on the south bank.

By whatsoever name the river may be called during the first part of its course, certain it is, that after the stream has passed Oxford, that renowned seat of learning, if not of truth, the sovereignty of OLD FATHER THAMES must henceforth be acknowledged, whether his name be derived from the combination of the words Thame and Isis, or not.

Besides furnishing an abundant supply of fish of various kinds from his own glassy bosom, Father Thames spreads health, fertility and plenty, wherever he appears, preparing the soil in his neighbourhood, for producing those golden harvests with

which the labours of the husbandman are ultimately blessed. And if by neglect, or an unusual accumulation of water, he should chance to break through his usual boundaries, producing miasma or ague by the stagnant waters; yet while continuing in motion, nothing but good can arise from his presence. Added to which, may be mentioned, that a number of country barges, laden with the necessary supplies for a large population, float upon his sinewy shoulders. He permits also, (a little to anticipate our subject,) from his estuary, almost as high as the tide waters ascends, numerous steamers to make furrows upon his back, and vessels of all burdens, and from all countries, to sail up to the port of London.

From Dorchester the course of the Thames is south east twenty-two miles, in a winding channel by Wallingford, to the junction of a considerable tributary, the Kennet, near Reading, which joins the Thames on the right. From this junction the Thames flows eastward, though in a very winding channel, to Windsor, making first a considerable circuit to the north, by Henley, Great Marlow, and Maidenhead. The course of the Thames from its source to Windsor, the spot at which we have now arrived, is through a country of surpassing beauty for richness of soil and picturesque scenery. The bolder scenes, so much admired on the banks of the Rhine, or the splendid views on the Seine, may be wanting, still every thing calculated to please the lover of rustic scenery will be found on the banks, or in the neighbourhood of the silvery Thames. The Thames likewise forms a boundary between Berks and Bucks, Surrey and Middlesex, Kent and Essex.

Having reached the *vicinity* of London we must linger though only for a moment or two, upon those panoramic views with which both the banks of the Thames are studded.





WINDMILL CASTLE.
From the Terrace.



WINDMILL CASTLE.
From the Water.

WINDSOR CASTLE, THE LONG WALK, AND THE VIRGINIA WATER, first claim our attention. The town of Windsor, in the county of Berks, though consisting of six streets, with a population of ten thousand, would hardly claim our attention, but for the Royal Castle situated in it. Distant more than twenty miles from London, the number of visitors to Windsor, on the old modes of travelling, were but few, whether by land or water. A railway conveyance has produced a new state of things; and now thousands during the summer months, resort thither daily. Neither can visitors be disappointed either with the expedition and economy of the journey, or the numerous things worthy of notice on their arrival. Windsor Castle was given to the Abbey of Westminster, by Edward the Confessor, but restored to the Crown by William the Norman. It has long been a favourite residence for royalty, and so continues, Her Majesty Queen Victoria spending much of her time at this delightful spot.

On entering the gateway of the Castle, St. George's Chapel appears in front. It is one of the finest specimens of Gothic architecture in the kingdom. The choir is decorated with the stalls and banners of the Knights of the Garter; and the numerous sepulchral monuments, especially that of the Princess Charlotte, will not fail to interest the stranger.

George IV. rebuilt a great part of the Castle, besides, greatly improving the whole structure, under the supervision of Sir Jeffrey Wyatville. The state apartments are all superbly fitted up; and a number of beautiful and costly paintings, by the most eminent masters, ancient and modern, are deposited here. These apartments are opened to the inspection of visitors, and well deserve public attention. A small book descriptive of the Castle, may be purchased on the spot, for a trifle, giving a

catalogue of the paintings, and a particular detail of the Castle and its neighbourhood.

The round tower, or *keep*, stands on an artificial mound ; and is the most conspicuous object in the Palace. A fine picture presents itself from the battlements of this tower, including, not only a view of the Thames and villages in the immediate locality, but a panorama likewise of unparalleled magnificence, extending into twelve counties :—Middlesex, Essex, Hertford, Bedford, Buckingham, Berks, Oxford Wilts, Hants, Surrey, Sussex, and Kent.

A modern poet gives us the following beautiful description of this spot—

“ Oft from the Castle’s northern terrace high
Mine eyes have gazed upon the plains below,
Where Windsor and scholastic Eton lie,
And FATHER THAMES glides through with easy flow.
Then thought, with noiseless, yet with rapid wings,
Would bear me backward to the former ages ;
And fancy, with her bright imaginings,
Would raise the men embalm’d in history’s pages,
Monarchs and poets, warriors, priests, and learned sages.”

Windsor Great Park lies on the southern side of the castle, and includes a fine avenue of trees nearly three miles in length, called the LONG WALK, the view terminating with an equestrian statue of George III. by Westmacott. The park is extremely beautiful. Through the park is the VIRGINIA WATER, being the largest expanse of artificial water in England. The fishing temple, several miniature frigates, and an innumerable number of fantastical *gewgaws*, were placed here by their once presiding *genius*—George IV. The place



ETON COLLEGE



THE LONG WALK

was originally laid out for a former Duke of Cumberland, by Paul Sandby, the painter. It is now fast going to decay, perhaps the sooner the better.

ETON COLLEGE is in Buckinghamshire, but joined to Windsor by a bridge. It has long been known as a public grammar school. The neighbourhood bears ample testimony that many a juvenile *marauder* has been here, the very lamps by the highway side being enveloped in a cage of iron, to protect them from *cases of assault*. The school was founded by Henry VI. in 1440, for the support of a provost and seven fellows, and the education of seventy youths in classical learning. The number of scholars altogether generally amounts to from three to four hundred. Eton has been the *seed-bed*, where many of our distinguished statesmen, divines, lawyers, and scholars have been reared. The college consists of two quadrangles, appropriated to the school, the lodgings of the masters and scholars, the apartments of the provost and fellows, and the library, said to be one of the finest in Europe for manuscripts, paintings, and other curiosities. The chapel is likewise a fine building, somewhat resembling that of King's College, Cambridge.

The *montem* is still continued every third year at Salt Hill, near the public road. Its object is to make a collection for the captain of the school, preparatory to his leaving for the University. The money raised generally amounts to £1000, or even more; being collected from spectators and passengers, under the cant term of *salt*.

Leaving Eton and Windsor, FATHER THAMES glides along by a considerable circuit to the south, until he reaches Hampton Court in Middlesex, and Kingston in Surrey; twelve miles from London. The Royal Palace of Hampton Court has been

already described, see page 10 ; and of Kingston it must suffice to say that the old bridge over the Thames was thought to be as ancient as the late London Bridge. The present handsome bridge of seven arches was opened 1828, and cost about £40,000. Near Kingston are the celebrated Coombe springs, from which water is conveyed, under the Thames, to supply Hampton Court. Near Kingston also is a station of the South Western Railway. Kingston moreover is the boundary of the Lord Mayor's jurisdiction as conservator of the Thames ; and is likewise the extent of the annual excursion of the *swan-hoppers*. To explain this, we remark that the swans on the Thames belong partly to the crown, and partly to the city companies of the Vintners and Dyers. These birds are far less numerous now than formerly. Boats provided by Her Majesty and the two companies just named go up the river annually to catch and mark the cygnets, and to renew the mark on the old birds if obliterated. The swan-marks are made upon the upper mandible with a knife. On catching the swans, if not previously marked, the crown takes the first, the Vintners the second, and the Dyers the third.

Proceeding onward on the left bank of the Thames, we meet with TEDDINGTON, and then TWICKENHAM. This last-named pretty village derived some celebrity from being the residence of Pope the poet. His remains are deposited in the Church, where a monument erected to him may be seen ; with an inscription by his friend Bishop Warburton. This is a favourite place of resort in the summer months by the steam boats from London.

RICHMOND on the Surrey, or right bank of the river, now comes in view. Having already described this splendid village, see page 8 we have only further to remark that here we first



TWICKENHAM

House of Commons



NEAR TEDDINGTON



SION HOUSE
Seat of the D. of Northampton.



ISLEWORTH CHURCH

meet with the tide, at a distance of seventy miles from the Ocean, being a greater length for the tide to run than any other river in Europe. KEW, about a mile from Richmond has a handsome stone bridge over the Thames erected in 1789. Kew Palace for many years was the occasional residence of George III., where also several of his family were born and educated. Large sums were expended upon the erection of a new Palace at Kew, which George IV. caused to be demolished, not leaving a single stone to mark the spot where it stood. Nearly opposite to Kew, on the northern bank of the Thames, is the village of *Isleworth*, and, in the same parish, the magnificent seat of the Duke of Northumberland. Zion House was formerly a monastery for priests and nuns of Bridget.

The Children of Charles I. were long in custody at Zion House, where the king was occasionally allowed to visit them. The gardens, conservatories, and hothouses are, it is believed, not surpassed by any in the kingdom.

A little lower on the same side of the Thames, stands Brentford, the county town for Middlesex, and which before the passing of the reform bill, was often the scene of much riot and confusion consequent upon the election, which used to take place here. The time for the poll having been shortened, and polling booths erected in different districts of the county, the recurrence of such a nuisance is effectually prevented. The events of by-gone days in reference to this town are however not likely to be forgotten, deservedly forming as they do a part of our national history. The struggles of *Parson Horne*, afterwards the celebrated Horne Tooke, in defence of the liberty of his country, will ever be a bright page in the history of England. Old Brentford maintains its notoriety for *dirty streets* and *white legged chickens*. The name of the town is

derived from the river Brent, which here falls into the bosom of OLD FATHER THAMES.

The manor of Mortlake, Barn Elms, and the village of BARNES, in Surrey, next claim our notice; Barn Elms, is believed, to have been so called from a number of ancient trees which once stood here. Sir Francis Walsingham, Secretary of State to Queen Elizabeth was long a resident in this village; and was afterwards succeeded by Cowley the poet. Near the same spot lived Tonson the bookseller, well known as secretary to the *Kit-kat* club. BARNES has a pretty village church, the churchyard of which is rendered memorable by a stone tablet surrounded with *rose trees*, and protected by a fence, to the memory of Edward *Rose*, a citizen of London, who died in 1653, and left £20 for the purchase of an acre of land for the poor of Barnes' parish, on condition that the fence surrounding his grave should be kept in repair, and the *roses* preserved.

A little farther on the Middlesex, or northern bank of the Thames, is the village of CHISWICK. Its church forms a pleasingly conspicuous object from the water. A visit to it will amply repay the traveller,—the church and churchyard being rich in monuments and inscriptions. A monument of Hogarth, with an inscription by Garrick, claims particular attention. A little west of the village are the gardens of the Floricultural Society, which contain an extensive collection of new, choice, and ornamental trees, shrubs, plants, &c. The gardens are open daily for the admission of fellows of the society, and their friends. Tickets are obtainable at the society's offices, in Regent-street. A visit to this delightful, and well cultivated spot, will prove a great treat to every lover of horticultural pursuits.

Nearly adjoining to Chiswick is HAMMERSMITH, which

stretches for a considerable distance along the bank of the Thames. It is a hamlet of Fulham, and distant nearly a mile from it. Close to Hammersmith once stood Brandenburg House, an elegant villa of the 17th century, the residence of the unhappy and injured Caroline, queen of George IV., during her last abode in England. She died here, heart-stricken, in 1820. After her death the house was pulled down, as if to prevent the stones of Brandenburg House from crying out shame upon the persecutors of an ill-fated woman ! But how soon is the oppressed and the oppressor alike at rest. Almost all the actors in that sad tragedy have already gone the way whence they will not return, to wait the final *award* of a righteous judge.

HAMMERSMITH SUSPENSION BRIDGE was, until the erection of the Charing-cross Bridge, the only suspension bridge across the Thames. The necessity of a bridge from Hammersmith, to the opposite shore, was long felt to be a *desideratum*. The necessary sum for its erection was raised by Act of Parliament, amounting to £80,000. The design for the bridge was made by Mr. W. T. Clark, under whose inspection it was built. The bridge is composed of two square towers, with pilasters and cornices of the Doric order, just below low water mark, and with apertures in them for the roadway. In these towers, the chains that carry the roadway are supported. It forms a picturesque, and highly agreeable feature among modern improvements, particularly as viewed from the water.

FULHAM is *too well* known in the history of our country. The palace of the bishop of London, and the beautiful forest trees which adorn its gardens, still speak loudly of the blood of the saints. Bonner, when bishop of London, stained the

grass-plot of his own garden, with the blood of poor Thomas Henshaw, which he cruelly drew from the back of his victim by scourging him with his own hand. During Mary's short reign of five years, and while Bonner was bishop of London, one hundred and twenty five persons were burnt in his diocese, and through his agency. Rome has indeed committed sins for which she can never be forgiven! Yet this episcopal *fiend*, with all his cruelty, maintained a characteristic wagghery which never forsook him. He told one of his accusers that he spake like a *goose*, another like a *woodcock*; and when he was being taken from the council chamber to the Marshalsea, a man exclaimed—'*The Lord confound, or else turn thy heart!*' Bonner answered, '*The Lord send thee to keep thy breath to cool thy porridge!*' And after his deprivation, one in the crowd called out to him,—'*Good morrow, Bishop quondam?*' '*Farewell,*' answered Bonner, '*Knave semper.*' Some of Bonner's Protestant successors were nearly as bad as he. Would to God that no intolerance could now be found in Fulham! But bishops, whether bad or good, like other men, have their entrances and their exits. Of this truth the parish churchyard of this village bears ample testimony, since the tombs of bishops Compton, Robinson, Gibson, Hayter, Terrick, and Lowth, are to be found there. Fulham is united to Putney, in Surrey, by a wooden bridge, which is at once old and dangerous.

PUTNEY, is a village of no great pretensions. It was the birth-place of Chancellor Cromwell, the son of a blacksmith, and the devoted friend of Cardinal Wolsey. Had he served the same masters as his father, he might have died in peace; but being the faithful servant of a faithless tyrant, Henry VIII., he suffered death upon the scaffold. Near Putney, in 1806, died William Pitt. Of this distinguished



WANDSWORTH.



PUTNEY.



FULHAM



BARNES CHURCH.

individual the following singular anecdote is told. “ Pitt died at a solitary house, on Wimbledon Common ; not far off, by the road side, stood, and still stands, a small country inn, where the various parties interested in the great statesman’s life, were accustomed to apply for information, and to leave their horses and carriages. On the morning of the 23d of January, 1806, an individual having called at this inn, and not being able to obtain a satisfactory reply to his inquiries, proceeded to the house of Pitt. He knocked, but no servant appeared ; he opened the door and entered, but found no one in attendance. He proceeded from room to room, and at length entered the sick chamber, where, on a bed, in silence and perfect solitude, he found, to his unspeakable surprise, the dead body of that great statesman who had so lately wielded the power of England, and influenced, if he did not control, the destinies of the world. We doubt whether any much more awful example of the lot of mortality has ever been witnessed ! Can this story be true ?

Adjoining Putney is WANDSWORTH, a village of considerable population ; yet rather declining as a manufacturing district. The calico printing and iron works have entirely stopped, and the dyeing of cloths nearly ceased. The Wandle, a useful though not a large river, runs through the village of Wandsworth, and then enters the Thames. A new church has lately been built, which forms a conspicuous object from a distance. The living of Wandsworth is a vicarage, and the church a plain old building, nearly in the middle of the principal street, which also, is the old Portsmouth road. Adjoining Wandsworth is BATTERSEA, another parish of considerable extent, with a church of comparatively modern erection. The living is one of the most valuable in the neighbourhood of

London, from the large amount of tithes, accruing from the immense quantity of land which is appropriated in this parish to the growth of vegetables. The situation of the village, though low, is not considered unhealthy.

That part of the Thames which washes Battersea and the opposite shore, is called Chelsea reach; and when a strong easterly wind prevails is accounted dangerous for wherries and sailing boats, from the great surf which is produced. Many an inexperienced Sabbath-breaker has here met with a watery grave.

The extensive and populous village of CHELSEA is seen or a long distance, lying on the northern bank of the Thames. A description of Chelsea Hospital will be found in a preceding article. (See page 206.) Old Chelsea church is nearly forsaken, having been superseded by the building of a new church, dedicated to St. Luke, the patron saint of Chelsea, and now known as the parish chapel. There are besides several district churches in the parish of Chelsea, and in Pimlico, formerly a district of St. George's, Hanover-square, such as Trinity, St. Jude's, St. Saviour's, St. Michael's, and St. Paul's; yet, singular as it may appear, divine worship is not performed in the same manner in any two of them. Such have been the effects of a right reverend prelate's charges on a church, which professes uniformity of worship and discipline! The number of celebrated individuals who once inhabited Chelsea, are too numerous to be enumerated. The name of Sir Hans Sloane is inscribed on so many of the streets, and other buildings, in Chelsea, that his memory will endure as long as the village itself. The apothecaries are indebted to the distinguished physician just mentioned, for their garden, which continues to be well maintained. Tickets may, without



CHELSEA.
from Battersea Bridge



ROYAL MILITARY ASYLUM

much trouble, he obtained to inspect the garden. A mean, old, crazy bridge, across the Thames, connects Chelsea with Battersea.

Opposite Chelsea we meet with the Red House, well known as a place of public resort; and not far beyond it Nine Elms where the *terminus* of the South Western Railway is situated. This has become a place of great bustle, having occasioned the starting of a vast number of steam-boats from Hungerford market and London-bridge; together with omnibuses from all parts of town. Indeed the number of steamers have so increased above London-bridge that the very character of the Thames has become changed. Formerly the river was comparatively smooth and clear; but now the Thame is in perpetual agitation, and as thick as *pea-soup*. Once the river was covered with wherries, and sailing boats of every description; but now deserted by every thing, but steamers and the country craft. The *finny tribes* of Father Thames have in consequence of this general turmoil greatly decreased.

VAUXHALL BRIDGE next arrests our attention. The first stone of this bridge was laid in 1813, and it was opened in June 1816. The bridge itself is of iron, and consists of nine arches, of seventy-eight feet span, and eight piers, each thirteen feet wide. The length of the bridge, clear of the abutments, is eight hundred and six feet; and the clear width of the bridge thirty-six feet, divided into a carriage way, and two foot ways. The width of the Thames at Vauxhall is nine hundred feet, the depth, at low water, from eight to ten feet, and the rise of the tide, about twelve feet.

Just below Vauxhall-bridge are the well known gardens of the same name. These, during the summer months, were for-

merly much resorted to by the upper classes of society ; and there, and at other such places, those scenes were witnessed which need not be described. Queen Charlotte certainly must have the credit of introducing a decorum at court, unknown before her time ; and which produced a permanent change in the conduct and amusements of all classes, more particularly of the aristocracy. The masquerades, and other indecent exhibitions at Ranelagh, on the opposite shore of the Thames, have long since passed away.

Farther eastward, on the left bank of the Thames, stands the Millbank Penitentiary, and still farther on the opposite shore Lambeth Palace, but having already described both of these buildings, (see pages 177 and 80), we need not here dwell upon them.

THE NEW HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, Westminster Hall, and Westminster Abbey, now come in sight. The Houses of Parliament being at present unfinished, we reserve a description of them, for a separate article. Westminster Hall and Westminster Abbey are each referred to distinct notices. Westminster-bridge has been already described. See page 87.

Indeed every pictorial object on either bank of the Thames, has come under review, excepting the Temple and the Temple-gardens, and the bridges of Blackfriars, Southwark, and London. The first of these will be found under the article the Law Courts and Inns of Court, and the three bridges, will require a short but distinct notice elsewhere.

Passing under London-bridge we reach that part of the Thames called the POOL, and which reaches to about Deptford. This forms the grand *receptacle* for ships of all burdens, and of all nations. Before the opening of the London and West India Docks, more than a thousand vessels have been

known at one time to be lying in the Pool, their masts forming a floating forest from their immense number. Even with this diminution the amount is often very great, especially at stated times of the year. The amount of capital found in these floating depôts must likewise be immense. The steamers, also, starting from or returning to, the different wharfs, both above and below London-bridge, for or from Greenwich, Woolwich, Gravesend, Margate, and other places more or less distant, create a scene of bustling movement, which will greatly surprise a stranger.

Before proceeding farther a few general remarks may here be introduced. There is at London-bridge, at ebb tide, a depth of about thirteen feet of water, the tide rising seventeen feet, and at spring-tide twenty-two feet, or even more. The commercial importance of the THAMES is apparent, from the fact that vessels of eight hundred tons, can get up to St. Katherine's Docks, and those of one thousand four hundred tons to Blackwall. Smaller vessels moor alongside the quays, or in tiers in the stream. Several docks have been excavated on the bank of the river, of which we propose forthwith to give some account. The width of the Thames, at London Bridge, is about seven hundred feet; at Woolwich, a quarter of a mile; at Gravesend, more than half a mile; about four miles lower, it is nearly a mile; and, at the Nore, FATHER THAMES spreads out his arms to the width of six miles.

Some notion of the commerce carried on upon the bosom of the Thames, may be obtained from the following statements:

The net amount of customs' duty paid in London, during the year 1837, was £10,190,006, being more than half the customs paid, during the same year, by all the various ports of the United Kingdom.

The number and tonnage of vessels, inwards, British and foreign, during the same year, were as follows :—

<i>British.</i>			<i>Foreign.</i>	
4079 ships	. . . 821,788 tons.		1547 ships	. . . 240,135 tons.

The number and tonnage of ships that cleared out from London to different parts of the world, during the same year, were as follows :—

	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>
To the United States of America	79	36,231
To the British North American Colonies	220	72,060
To the Cape of Good Hope	45	9,867
To the Australian Colonies	100	36,464
To other parts	4,016	748,300
<hr/>		<hr/>
Total	4,460	902,922

The number and tonnage of coasting vessels that entered the port of London, during the same year, are as follows :—

<i>General Coasters, including Colliers.</i>		<i>Irish Traders.</i>		<i>Total.</i>	
<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
20,201	2,743,854	1,121	167,882	21,322	2,911,736

It is believed not to be possible to form correct estimates of merchandize brought to London by canals and waggons. Neither can definite information be obtained of the value of merchandize constantly in the warehouses of the larger docks. It must always be very great. Neither can the number of steamers be ascertained, since many, carrying only passengers, make no entry at the Custom House; and, of those carrying merchandize, no distinction is made between steamers and sailing-vessels.



ST. KATHERINE'S DOCKS

Passing Billingsgate and the Custom House, already described, and referring the Tower to a separate notice, we come upon **ST. KATHERINE'S DOCKS**, first opened for the reception of shipping in 1828. On the site of this commercial establishment, so important to the metropolis, stood the collegiate church and hospital of St. Katherine. The church was pulled down to make way for the docks, and, in lieu of it, a splendid building has been erected in the Regent's Park. The docks and warehouses cost upwards of a million sterling. The **LONDON DOCKS** nearly join those of St. Katherine. To form these immense docks, a great part of Wapping has been excavated; and the streets left are so isolated, that trade and the inhabitants, have been completely driven from this locality, and what was once valuable property hereby rendered useless. The docks extend from the Thames nearly to Ratcliff Highway, being enclosed by a wall of brick, lined with warehouses. St. George's Dock covers the space from Virginia-street almost to Old Gravel-lane in one direction, and is capable of holding five hundred ships, with room for shifting. A dock adjoining, called Shadwell Dock, will hold about fifty ships, the entrance to both being by three basins, capable of holding an immense quantity of smaller craft. The inlets from the Thames into these basins are at the Old Hermitage Dock, Old Wapping Dock, and Old Shadwell Dock. This busy scene of commercial enterprise has recently received various changes and improvements.

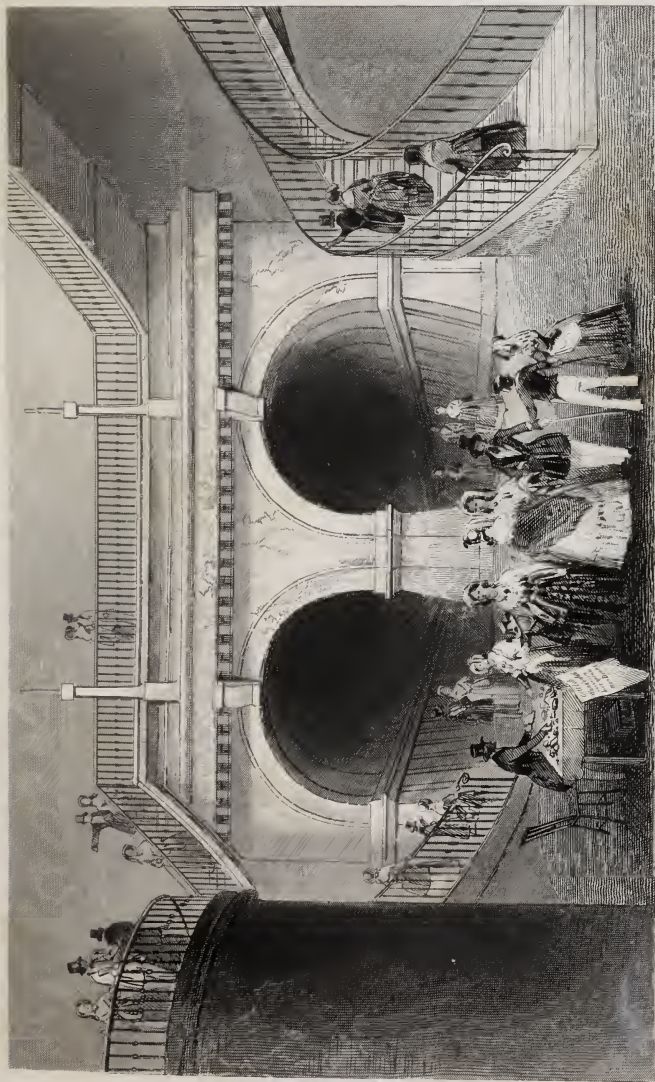
We now approach the termination of that part of the Thames known by the name of the Middle Pool. About the spot where stands Rotherhithe church is considered its boundary. This particular site has become distinguished as

the southern entrance to the THAMES TUNNEL, one of the most stupendous works which modern art has achieved, forming a connection between the counties of Surrey and Middlesex, by a road which passes under the Thames. It was originally projected by Sir I. M. Brunel, but the first complete passage, from side to side, was effected in 1841. Such a work was, by many, thought impracticable, and several untoward accidents happened during its progress; but, notwithstanding every difficulty, it has been brought to a successful termination. Wonderful as such a work certainly is, the advantages derived from it have hitherto been but trifling.

Whether it is ever likely to be useful remains still a problem. This surprising *trajectus*, or passage, is one thousand three hundred feet in length, having two arched passages of massive brick work, sixteen feet four inches wide each, with a path a yard wide for foot passengers. Visitors to London will not fail to resort to this modern wonder of the world. A toll of one penny is exacted from each person.

Proceeding easterly, and passing the handsome church of Limehouse, built by Queen Anne, on the left, we arrive at what is called the lower Pool. This locality has branched out east and north to a very great extent. The Regent's Canal having connexion with the Paddington Canal, and also with the river Lea, and thus connecting the chief inland artificial navigation, and also the conveyance of goods into Hertfordshire, here falls into the Thames.

Approaching the Isle of Dogs, so called from the noise which the royal hounds made, when the court was kept at Greenwich, we descry the immense excavations which have been made for ships engaged in the West India trade. The northern dock receives loaded vessel inwards, covering an extent of thirty





PLANTY BAY



THE DREADNOUGHT, SEPTEMBER 1860

acres, and affording accommodation to from two to three hundred ships. The southern dock is appropriated to loading vessels outward, occupying a space of twenty-four acres. The warehouses for storing West India produce, form an extensive range of buildings all round the docks. The entrances being at Blackwall and Limehouse. West India vessels must deliver their freights here. This extensive and important receptacle for shipping was finished in 1802, at an expence exceeding £1,200,000. Passing these docks, we arrive at Limehouse Reach, the termination of the pool.

Deptford next claims our attention, having been the site of a royal dock-yard since the time of Henry VIII. The wet docks, mast-houses, and store-houses, covering more than thirty acres of land. But little business is now carried on here. The victualling office formerly called the Red House, adjoins Deptford; Greenwich Reach is just below Deptford, in which lies the Dreadnought, a ninety-eight gun-ship, which was engaged in the memorable battle of Trafalgar. She is now devoted to charitable purposes, being an hospital ship for sick or disabled SEAMEN OF ALL NATIONS. Whatever quarrels may exist between nation and nation, in sickness and sorrow, *all, of every nation, are brethren.*

Passing Greenwich, which we have already described, (page 198) we come, by a sudden turn of FATHER THAMES, on the eastern side of the Isle of Dogs, to Blackwall, where are the East India Docks, originally designed only for shipping engaged in the East India trade, but now open for the reception of others. Opposite to these docks is the Blackwall Steam Wharf, for embarking and disembarking passengers and goods. This wharf being connected with the Blackwall and London Railway, has become a place of considerable bustle,

thousands of persons arriving here by the trains, which leave London every quarter of an hour, to proceed by steamers to Gravesend, or elsewhere.

The Brunswick Tavern, which forms a conspicuous object from the river, is a place of great resort for parties of pleasure, whether large or small. Just below this point a branch of the river Lea, dividing the counties of Middlesex and Essex, enters the Thames.

As we approach Woolwich, on the right bank of the Thames, a pretty view of Shooter's Hill, with the castle of Severndray, is obtained, and soon after the small village of Charlton, with its rural church, may be seen. Woolwich now presents itself. From being only a mere fishing village, it has become a place of some importance from its extensive arsenal and large population. The entire establishment of Woolwich, civil and military, is under the immediate superintendence of the Master General and Board of Ordnance. During the long French war Woolwich was the grand depôt for all kinds of war-like stores. This spot, in a time of peace, possesses comparatively little interest; but even now it well deserves the notice of every intelligent visitor. The Dock-yard is nearly a mile in extent, and with every convenience for building or repairing ships of the largest size. In the Arsenal is a foundry for the casting of cannon, and in the Laboratory, ammunitions, bombs, shells, cartridges, &c., are prepared. The Royal Military Repository, and the Artillery Barracks, must be seen to be appreciated. Woolwich Church stands in a commanding situation, forming a striking object from the water. The visitors to Woolwich, from the increased facilities, have become very numerous. Besides coaches and omnibusses, steam-boats start every half hour from London Bridge and Hungerford

Market. The *Hulks*, consisting of several old ships, lie off the town, having a number of *convicts* on board, who work about the dock-yard, or on the river.

In Barking Reach another small tributary is received, when FATHER THAMES, now in Half-way Reach, or fourteen miles and three-quarters from London, and about equi-distant between London and Gravesend, seems to exert renewed strength by demanding increased dimensions for his rolling waves; and by his incessant gyrations, threatening to repeat what he did a century and a half ago, namely, lay the neighbouring country under water. On the right is seen the ivy-mantled church of Erith, and soon after Purfleet, on the left. The Darent also here adds strength to the already mighty THAMES.

GREENHITHE next comes in view, on the right, long celebrated for its immense chalk-pits, and which formerly belonged to the priory of Dartford. Ingress Park deserves notice for a mansion built by James Harmer, Esq., of the stones which were taken from old London Bridge.

Northfleet next deserves notice, being built on a lofty chalk hill, whence lime is exported in large quantities. A new town has lately sprung up here, called ROSHERVILLE, running up from the river towards the Dover-road. This enterprising plan was put into execution by Jeremiah Rosher, Esq. Several terraces and squares have already been built. Extensive pleasure gardens, tastefully laid out for the reception of visitors, are already finished. A bathing establishment, likewise, and an hotel have been built; and, that nothing should be wanting to this interesting locality, a handsome and convenient pier has been constructed for the use of steam vessels, the landing stairs for passengers leading to a spacious *esplanade*.

Leaving this newly made fairy scene, we arrive at

GRAVESEND, twenty-two miles from London by land. Few places have experienced greater alterations in a short time than this: once resorted to only by means of land carriage, or sailing boats, with the coarsest accommodation, it was then not regarded as a place genteel enough for the *spouse* of a London *cit*. But things are altered; and now every convenience is afforded by the constant arrival and departure of elegantly fitted up steamers from and to different parts of London. Gravesend, or the town pier, and the terrace pier, have been made for the comfort of passengers; and the modern town of Gravesend has every accommodation of markets, bazaars, taverns, hotels, lodging-houses, pleasure gardens, cricket grounds, concerts, balls, a theatre, carriages for hire, &c. Neither has church accommodation been quite overlooked; since, besides a large parish church, a new Gothic church has been built on the road to Milton, and several chapels are to be found in different parts of the town. Gravesend, in fact, has become a fashionable watering place.

The following return of passengers landed and embarked at the terrace and town piers, *in the month of June, 1844*, will show the immense resort to this town during the season:—

Star Company, with five boats	100,916
Diamond Company, with six boats	95,444
Blackwall Company, with three boats	77,299
Sons of the Thames Company, with two boats	31,356
Eagle Company, with two boats	11,647
Commercial Company, with two boats	14,982
The Corporation Tug	95

Total	331,739
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To and from Blackwall	209,571
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Hungerford Market, Waterloo Bridge, Old	}	122,168
Swan, London Bridge, and other Places		
through the Pool		

Total	331,739
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GRAVESEND



TERRACE PIER GRAVESEND

The THAMES, having passed Gravesend, and left Tilbury Fort on the left, hurries on to Sheerness, where he receives additional strength just above the Nore, by the principal arm of the Medway, his last tributary ; but the smaller arm of this river called the Smale, dividing the Isle of Sheppy from the main land of Kent, joins the Thames at Whitstable.

And now FATHER THAMES, meeting with those charming *Sea-nymphs* of the British channel, whom he has, with such constancy, wooed, twice in every twenty-five hours, for so many ages, and falling into their embraces, we there leave *Him*, having followed him during his long wanderings, from his source to this estuary.

The whole length of the Thames may be thus stated :—

	Miles.
Length of the Churn	20
From the junction of the Churn with the Lech	9
To the junction of the Windrush	14
To the junction of the Charwell	13
To the junction of the Thame	16
To the junction of the Kennet	22
To London-bridge	70
To the Sea	56
Total	220

THE TOWER.

No place in the metropolis, or perhaps throughout the British empire, better deserves notice than the Tower of London. Once the palace of kings, its remote history stands connected

with royalty and splendour, always the attendants of a court. Within its walls, impregnable as they were regarded, princes, surrounded with their courtiers, could revel in safety, even in troublous times. And when, from a palace, the Tower degenerated into a state prison—a royal bastile and inquisition—the place became, perhaps, even more interesting than formerly. For if the walls of the buildings could trumpet out the wanton and extravagant revelry of kings, many of the walls likewise could tell, in doleful accents, those tales of woe which would soften the most obdurate heart, and deluge the eyes with tears of blood. From the eleventh century to the present time, this fortress has had a very diversified history to recount.

The noisy mirth of a court is but evanescent, but the *mementos* of suffering prisoners, whether incarcerated for civil or spiritual offences, are not so easily obliterated. Many of the wailings, no doubt, of kings, queens, princes, nobles, confessors, and other sufferers, have never reached any other ear than that of the Lord of Sabaöth; yet there are ample materials for filling volumes with the history of human woe which has taken place within this *Golgotha*, much of which even the walls still bear the impress.

Here the broken-hearted captive has been heard to make his moan—

“ Of comfort no man speaks :
Let's talk of graves of worms, and epitaphs ;
Make dust our paper, and with *rainy* eyes
Write sorrow on the bosom of the earth.
Let's choose executors, and talk of wills :—
And yet not so,—for what can we bequeath,
Save our departed bodies to the ground ? ”

Here kings themselves may have exclaimed :—

“ For heaven’s sake, let us sit upon the ground,
And tell sad stories of the death of kings :—
How some have been deposed——
Some haunted by the ghosts they have depos’d ;
—— some sleeping, kill’d ;
All murder’d ! ”

King Richard II.

Where shall we begin the catalogue of those who have been prisoners in the Tower? In the time of Edward I. the Tower was ever full. The Jews, the Welsh, and the Scots, were alike his victims. In 1305 the noble Wallace entered these walls only to be dragged to an ignominious execution in Smithfield. Sir John Oldcastle (Lord Cobham), having been a prisoner here for some time, managed to escape, but being again apprehended, he was burned to death in a miserable manner, at St. Giles’s. He was among the first who suffered for English Protestantism. The history of the *Wars of the Roses* was written in blood, shed within the precincts of the Tower. Henry VI., and his ill-fated queen, Margaret, were both confined here at the same time, being divided only by the walls of their prison. The king perished in secrecy. A butt of malmsey was, within the Tower, made the instrument of death to the Duke of Clarence. The ghosts of the infant Edward V. and his murdered brother, the Duke of York, long called for vengeance. The Tower during the wretched reign of Henry VIII. was filled with victims. The first was Edward, Duke of Buckingham. The learned, excellent, but facetious More, and the crippled but lion-hearted Bishop Fisher soon followed, for denying the new doctrine of supremacy. Sir Thomas More, on his entrance, having, according to the barbarous custom of the times, had his uppermost garment demanded of

him by the porter, gave the *fellow* his cap. The venerable catholic prelate, Fisher, now nearly eighty years of age, wrote a letter to the chancellor (Cromwell), in which are these touching words :—" Furthermore I beseech you to be good master in my necessity ; for I have neither shirt, nor suit, nor yet other clothes that are necessary for me to wear, but that be ragged and rent too shamefully. Notwithstanding, I might easily suffer that, if they would keep my body warm. But my diet also, God knoweth, how slender it is at many times. And now, in mine age, my stomach may not away, but with a few kind of meats, which if I want, I decay forthwith." Poor Queen Anne Boleyn, soon after, entered this *aceldama*, at the dreadful Traitor's-gate, and was beheaded on the green within the Tower. The list of sufferers might be lengthened to great extent. It must suffice to record only a few names in addition.

Lord Guilford and Lady Jane Grey, his youthful and amiable wife, suffered here. Even the haughty Queen Elizabeth was once a prisoner herself in this charnel-house ; and yet, afterwards, how many groaned within its walls by her committal. Queen Mary, suspecting Elizabeth's participation in Wyatt's conspiracy, committed her to the Tower. On reaching the Traitor's-gate, her proud heart dictated a refusal to land ; and, on doing so, she exclaimed—" Here landeth as true a subject, being a prisoner, as ever landed at these stairs ; and before thee, O God, I speak it, having none other friend than thee." And, on seating herself by the way, she said—" Better sit here than in a worse place ; for God knoweth, and not I, whither you will bring me." The names and histories of Latimer, Cranmer, Raleigh, Strafford, Laud, Sydney, Russel, and a hundred others, are connected with the Tower. Notwithstanding the many interesting and important *mementos* of

the *olden times*, preserved in the Tower; yet, for many years, they were so secluded from public notice, chiefly perhaps from the high price required for admission, that few persons, excepting now and then a party from the country, sought to inspect them. A better state of things however now exists; and, for a comparative trifle, the numerous military and civil curiosities of the place may be seen any day of the week, from ten till four.

The TOWER is situated at almost the eastern extremity of London, and on the banks of the Thames. The whole fortress covers about twelve acres of ground, within a strongly fortified wall, and surrounded by water. William the Norman seems to have fixed upon it, both for a place of residence and a means of defence. Formerly, from the strength of the walls, and the surrounding water, it would be nearly, if not quite, impregnable.

The principal entrance is at the south west corner. Immediately on entering, what used to be called the Lion tower, presents itself on the right hand, but no wild beasts having been kept in the Tower for the last few years, this building has been appropriated to other uses. Proceeding easterly, we come to a strong tower, placed for the defence of the moat; we arrive at the second tower, on crossing the drawbridge, which defends the entrance into the *ballium*, or outer ward; the third, called the Bloody tower, secures the entrance into the inner ward, or central part of the fortress. A little to the right of this is the Traitor's-gate, having a communication with the Thames. Immediately to the left of the Bloody tower is the entrance into the central part of the Tower, in the middle of which stands the White tower, and which originally formed the whole of the Tower itself.

The White tower is a large quadrangular structure, measuring, on its north and south sides, ninety-six feet; and, on its east and west, one hundred and sixteen; and rising to the height of ninety-two feet. Turret towers rise at the four corners, that at the north east having formerly been used by Flamstead as an observatory. On the ground floor is kept the volunteer armoury, where an immense number of small arms is deposited. On the floor above are two other armouries; and on the top is a room, once the council-chamber of our early kings; whilst the chapel, in its height, occupies both these upper stories. The chapel is considered to be a good specimen of Norman architecture. A portion of the Tower records is now deposited in it.

On the north side of the quadrangle stood the arsenal, built by William III., and opened by him with considerable splendour. This building contained, on the ground floor, an extensive collection of pieces of ordnance, of all sizes and periods; and, on the second story, the small arms armoury, consisting of a stand of one hundred and fifty thousand arms. But a disastrous fire, on the night of the 30th of October, 1841, destroyed this large building, and nearly the whole of its contents. The other parts of the Tower happily escaped.

The horse armoury rests against the base of the White tower, and from it is a staircase which leads into what was once the prison of the much injured Raleigh, but which now contains the smaller armoury, known by the name of Queen Elizabeth's armoury. The horse armoury consists of a row of figures mounted on horseback, exhibiting complete suits of armour, from the plain ringed net-work of the times of the Crusaders, through the growth and decline of the more splendid

plate armour, down to the merely helmeted and cuirassed warriors of the reign of James II. This collection is more complete than any other in Christendom, and is as interesting as it is valuable.

Queen Elizabeth's armoury was supposed to consist principally of the spoils of the Spanish armada; but the various instruments of torture here shown, and once imputed to the cruel invention of the Spaniards, are now known to be in most cases English, and formerly used for the torture of Englishmen.

The regalia deposited in a new building, lately erected for that purpose, may be seen to great advantage. These state *baubles*, said to be worth £3,000,000, consist of the new imperial crown, made for her present majesty, the queen's sceptre, of exquisite workmanship, the ampulla, or golden eagle, a vessel of pure gold, containing the anointing oil used at coronations, the anointing spoon, also of gold, the royal spurs, the armillæ, or coronation bracelets, the orb, ornamented with pearls and precious stones, the queen's orb, the queen's ivory sceptre, the golden salt-cellar, St. Edward's staff, and many other articles which need not be particularized.

The chapel of St. Peter's, at the north west corner of the quadrangle, before described, is the only one now used within the precincts of the Tower for divine service. This chapel holds the remains of many illustrious sufferers. Anne Boleyn rests here, with her brother, Lord Rochford, Bishop Fisher, Chancellor More, the Countess of Salisbury, Chancellor Cromwell, Protector Seymour, and his brother Admiral Seymour, Lady Jane Grey, with her husband and uncle, the Duke of Norfolk, the favourite Leicester, the Duke of Monmouth, and the rebel Scotch lords. In front of the chapel

was the spot where the scaffold was erected for many of these executions.

The government of the Tower is vested in the constable, an officer of the highest rank. The Duke of Wellington is the present constable.

THE TRINITY HOUSE & MINT, TOWER HILL.

THE TRINITY HOUSE is a handsome stone fronted building, consisting of a main body and two wings, the latter of which project a little. The basement story is of massy rustic work, the entrance being in the centre, and all the windows arched. On this rises the principal story, of the Ionic order, supporting a plain entablature, on which rests a sloping roof. In the centre of the main body are the arms of the corporation, and on each side a circular medallion, containing the profiles of George III. and his consort. Above the windows in the two wings are square medallions, in which are groups of genii, exhibiting different nautical instruments, with representations of the four principal light-houses on the coast. This building being on elevated ground, and having an extensive area in front, is seen to great advantage from Tower-hill.

This handsome structure was erected for the use of "*the Master, Wardens, and Assistants of the Guild Fraternity, or Brotherhood, of the most glorious and Undivided Trinity, and of Saint Clement*, in the parish of Deptford Strond, in the county of Kent." The records of this important brotherhood being destroyed by fire, in 1714, its earlier history is but imperfectly known. It is clear, however, that from a very remote date very important duties were entrusted with this

corporate body, and extensive privileges and large immunities granted to it.

Henry VII. appears to have bestowed great care upon the improvement of the navy; and with him probably originated the scheme, afterwards farther carried into effect by his son, Henry VIII., of forming efficient navy and admiralty boards of British subjects. A charter of incorporation was given to the Trinity House by Henry VIII., in 1515. This charter empowers the brethren of the guild, from time to time, to elect one master, four wardens, and eight assistants, to govern and oversee the guild, and have the custody of the lands and possessions thereof, and have authority to admit natural born subjects into the fraternity, and to communicate and conclude amongst themselves, and with others, upon the government of the guild, and all articles concerning the science and art of mariners, and make laws for the increase and relief of the shipping, and punish those offending against such laws; to collect penalties, arrest or distrain the persons, or ships, of offenders, according to the laws and customs of England.

Queen Elizabeth, on her accession to the throne, recognized all the rights and immunities of the corporation; and an act was passed in the eighth year of her reign to enable the corporation to preserve ancient sea-marks, to erect beacons, marks, and signs for the sea, and to grant licences to mariners, during the intervals of their engagements, to ply for hire as watermen on the river Thames. This act describes the corporation as a company of the chiefest and most expert masters and governors of ships, incorporate within themselves, charged with the conduction of the queen's majesty's navy royal, and bound to foresee the good increase and maintenance of ships, and of all kind of men traded and brought up by *watercraft*,

most meet for her majesty's marine service. From these particulars, it would appear that the duties and privileges of the brethren of the Trinity House were pretty well defined; yet from the practice of monopolies of different kinds being granted by our sovereigns, sometimes even of the same monopoly to different individuals, or to corporate bodies, the precise duties and immunities of the Trinity House were not accurately defined till an act passed in the 6 and 7 Wm. IV., "In order to the attainment of uniformity of system in the management of lighthouses, and the reduction and equalization of the tolls payable in respect thereof." By this enactment all the lighthouses and lights on the coasts of England were rated in the corporation of the Trinity House, and placing those of Scotland and Ireland, likewise, under the same supervision. All the lighthouses possessed by the crown were, by this act, invested in the corporation for the sum of £300,000. The corporation, moreover, had the right of purchasing all other lighthouses possessed by other proprietors.

The revenue of the corporation is derived principally from tolls paid by ships for the benefit received from the lights, beacons, buoys, and ballast supplied. The corporation has other property in land, and in the stocks. The whole is employed in the necessary expences of the corporation, for constructing and maintaining lighthouses and lights, beacons and buoys, and the buildings and vessels belonging to the corporation; for paying the officers of their establishments, and providing relief for decayed seamen, ballast-men, their widows, &c. Many almshouses are maintained from the same funds.

Of the thirty-one elder brethren, eleven consist of noblemen and heads of the government departments, admirals, &c., who



TRINITY HOUSE



THE MINT

are styled honorary brethren; twenty are maritime commanders, who receive £300 a year, each. The younger brethren, unlimited in number, are, or have been, commanders of merchant ships. Neither the honorary members or the younger brethren receive any pecuniary advantage. The present master is the Duke of Wellington.

Formerly, the brethren tried sea causes; but the practice at present is for two of the elder brethren to sit, as assistants to the judge, in the court of admiralty, when any question upon navigation is likely to arise. The various duties of the corporation are parcelled out among the wardens and different committees appointed for discharging the same. The committee of examiners is one of paramount importance; since by it all masters of vessels, and pilots, must be examined. The deputy-master and elder brethren are, from time to time, employed on voyages of inspection, and not unfrequently, in their surveys, subjected to considerable personal danger. In this way the amiable Captain Jenkyn Jones, R.N., lately lost his life, at the entrance of the Bristol channel, by the swamping of a boat.

THE MINT, Tower-hill.—On the site of this handsome building once stood East Minster, or the abbey of St. Mary of the Graces, founded by Edward III., in 1349, in consequence of a fright at sea, on his return from France, when he vowed if he got safe on shore he would found a monastery to the honour of *God* and the *Lady of Grace*. It continued, although in a languishing condition, until the dissolution of religious houses by Henry VIII. It was, for some years, used as a government victualling office; afterwards, as a warehouse for tobacco.

The Mint, as it now appears, was erected from the design

of Sir Robert Smirke, and completed in 1811, at an expence of nearly £250,000. The interior is well adapted for the purposes intended; the residences for the principal officers of the establishment likewise are commodious. The building is composed of a long stone front, consisting of three stories, surmounted by a handsome balustrade. The wings are decorated with pilasters; the centre with demi-columns, and a pediment ornamented with the arms of the United Kingdom.

The practice of making the more precious metals, particularly gold and silver, the current medium for mercantile and other transactions, is of early origin amongst civilized nations. The desirableness of having coins of some specific weight and value, and bearing some accredited impress upon them, would also soon become apparent. This led to the practice of coining, which, from reign to reign, appears gradually to have improved until the time of the protectorate, since which period this art has not progressed, excepting in the improved machinery with which it is wrought. Thomas Simon, who was in the service of Cromwell, produced specimens of his art, in the coins of 1658, bearing the effigy of the protector, which no modern artist has excelled.

In the earlier parts of our history, other *mints* existed besides that of the sovereign, and some were continued to a comparatively late period. Wolsey, both as Bishop of Durham and Archbishop of York, exercised this right. Barons, and bishops likewise, antecedently to this, were in the practice of striking money. At a very early period, the *moneyers*, or coiners, seem to have enjoyed exclusive privileges; but Elizabeth granted a charter, by which the *moneyers* were incorporated by the name of “the keeper of the changes; the workmen, coiners; and other ministers deputed to the

said office; to be from thenceforth one body perpetual, and one commonalty perpetual, in deed and in name, and to have perpetual succession." By this charter they were exempted from serving civil offices, and declared *quit* and exonerate for ever, in the city of London, town of Calais, and all other cities and town, from all assizes, talliages, aids, gifts, &c., to the queen, or her heirs. This charter was more than once confirmed by the same sovereign; and although these privileges have in various instances been entrenched upon, yet, substantially, they continue to the present time.

The establishment of the Mint consists of a master and worker, who is one of the queen's ministers; (2nd) a board,—consisting of the deputy-master, comptroller, king's assay master, king's clerk, and superintendent of machinery and dies; (3rd) officers in the service,—the master assayer, probationer assayer, weigher and teller, surveyor of meltings, surveyors of money presses, chief engraver, second engraver, medallist, clerk assistant, and deputy-master. Beside these, there are four clerks in the Mint-office, two porters, and other inferior persons.

The mode of coinage was, at first, rude, unfinished, and slow; but the present machinery, made by Boulton, is most elaborate and complete. To such a surprising degree of perfection has the machinery been brought, that the *moneymen* of the Mint can, if necessary, receive £50,000 worth of gold one morning, in bullion, and return it the next, in coin. Between the years 1816 and 1836, the money coined here amounted to £250,000 of copper, £12,000,000 of silver; and above £55,000,000 of gold. The charge for coining this amount was nearly £420,000, and the actual cost about £214,000, leaving a profit to the company of *moneymen* of nearly the same

amount. Any one may send bullion to be coined; but for many years the Bank of England alone has been the medium between the foreign importer and the Mint. The principal sources of supply, for both gold and silver, are the mines of Peru and Mexico; a large quantity of gold is also received from the Ural mountains.

The process of coining will require but few words to explain. The ingots are first melted in pots, when the alloy of copper is added, (one-twelfth part to gold, eighteen pennyweights to a pound, to silver), and the mixed metal cast into bars. The bars, in a heated state, are first passed through the breaking-down rollers, which reduces them to one-third their former thickness. They are next passed through the cold rollers, which bring them nearly to the thickness of the coin required, when the *draw-bench* is used, which secures an extraordinary degree of uniformity in the surface of the metal, leaving it of the exact thickness desired. The laminated bars are then cut into pieces of the proper shape, and separately weighed and sounded, to detect any flaws. The protecting rim is then raised, and the pieces, after blanching and annealing, are ready for stamping. The blanks are now put singly into the press, which, by one stroke, stamps on both sides, and mills the edge. About four or five thousand pieces may thus be struck in an hour. The bullion is now money, and ready for the trial of the *pix*, which is a trial of judgment between the coiners and the owners.

On the appointment of a new master, it is customary to have the trial of the *pix*, in the Court of Exchequer, to test the quality of the money, as between the master of the Mint and the people. This trial takes place before the members of the Privy Council, and a jury of twelve persons from the Gold-



LONDON BRIDGE

smiths' Company, the Lord Chancellor, or the Chancellor of the Exchequer, presiding. Such a trial took place in 1799, when, after a variety of minute experiments, 190 lbs. 9 oz. 9 dwts. 15 grs. of metal, shewed a deficiency of only 1 dwt. 15 grs.

THE CITY BRIDGES.

LONDON BRIDGE. | SOUTHWARK BRIDGE. | BLACKFRIARS BRIDGE.

THE bridges of a great city must always form an interesting portion of its history. The bridge, built originally by Peter of Colechurch, and to which allusion has been made, more than once, in another part of this work, was a history in itself. It had long been the pride and disgrace of London; but now that it has been removed, and not a wreck been left behind, it has lost its interest from being no longer seen.

The history of the present bridge may be put into a very small compass. After various delays, occasioned chiefly by opposition from the corporation, it was, in 1822, determined, on the recommendation of a select committee of the House of Commons, that a new bridge should be erected; and, accordingly, preparations were made for carrying this intention into effect. A design for the new bridge, made by the late John Rennie, Esq., was submitted to the city authorities, and approved.

Why the convenient site of the old bridge should have been given up for one every way inconvenient and expensive, it may be difficult to explain. It was, notwithstanding, an error which must for ever continue to be deplored. The present

bridge stands about one hundred and eighty feet higher up the river than its predecessor.

The first pile of the first coffer-dam, being that for the south pier, was driven on Monday, the 15th of March, 1824; and the foundation stone laid by John Garratt, Esq., the Lord Mayor, in the presence of the Duke of York, and many other distinguished personages, on the 15th of June, 1825. The bridge stands considerably higher on each side than the old one, being supported to its level by small dry arches. On each side of the bridge, likewise, a large dry arch has been thrown over the streets running east and west.

This noble bridge is built of granite of the finest description, consisting of five elliptical arches; the centre arch being generally considered one of the finest ever executed. The piers have massive *plinths* and Gothic pointed *cutwaters*. The arches are surmounted with a bold projecting block cornice, which corresponds with the line of road-way, covered with a plain blocking course, by way of parapet, giving the whole a simple grand appearance. The dimensions of the bridge are as follow:—centre arch, span 150 feet, rise 32 feet, piers, 24; arches next the centres, span 140 feet, rise 30 feet, piers 22 feet; abutment arches, span 130 feet, rise 25 feet, abutment 74 feet. The full width, from bank to bank, 690 feet; length of bridge, including abutments, 950 feet; ditto, without abutments, 782 feet; width of the bridge, from outside to outside of the parapets, 55 feet; carriage way, 33 feet 4 inches. The stairs, and the accompanying pedestals, are of granite. There are seventy-seven steps, leading to the river, thirty of which are covered at high water.

On the 1st of August, 1831, the anniversary of the accession of the House of Hanover to the throne of these realms,

the bridge was opened by his late majesty, William IV., who was pleased to direct that the procession should be by water. Preparations were hereupon made upon the most extensive and magnificent scale, by the city, for the reception of the royal visitors; the arrangements on the river being entrusted to Sir Byam Martin, and the bridge and its approaches to the care of the bridge committee. An extensive triple awning was erected along the London end of the bridge, which terminated in a magnificent pavilion for the reception of his majesty, and various apartments for the use of the queen and her attendants. The pavilion and awning were lined throughout with the colours of all nations, and upwards of one hundred and fifty flags and banners floated from the top of the bridge. In the royal tent, a table was laid for their majesties, and the members of the royal family; and, under the canopy, two long tables were placed, capable of accommodating one thousand five hundred persons, for the use of the aldermen and officers of the corporation, the common councilmen, and their ladies.

To facilitate their majesties' passage down the river, and to prevent confusion, two parallel lines of vessels were formed into a passage of about one hundred and fifty feet wide, consisting of a double, and, in many cases, a triple line of barges, steamers, yachts, and craft of every description, which extended from the upper water-gate of Somerset House, next Waterloo bridge, about half-way between Southwark-bridge and the new bridge, when the line became more open, and gradually spread to the stairs of the new bridge on each side, so as to afford ample space for the boats in the procession to land their inmates and retire. The termination of the lines, at these points, was formed by the eight city barges, with the navigation barge and shallops. These were newly gilt, decorated

with the gayest flags, and filled with company. Each barge had its appointed station; those of the lord mayor and stationers' company being rather in advance of the bridge, and all provided with bands of music.

Several gun-brigs were brought up the river, from which, and from the wharfs adjacent, *salutes* were fired throughout the day; flags and colours of all descriptions were brought into requisition, and even the vessels below bridge all appeared in their holiday decorations.

The balustrades of Waterloo and the other bridges were crowded with well dressed company. The windows, and the tops of the buildings, in every place which could command a view of the royal procession, were also thronged with spectators. The day proved very fine; and from the admirable nature of the arrangements accidents were prevented. The numerous thousands of persons who had witnessed the ceremony retiring home, at the close of the day, pleased and satisfied.

SOUTHWARK BRIDGE.—This stupendous work of human art crosses the river between London-bridge and Blackfriars. The spot seems to have been well selected; and considerable alterations have taken place in consequence of its erection, principally on the Surrey side. Southwark bridge was erected in compliance with an Act of Parliament which passed in 1811, obtained by a company of proprietors, and at the cost of £800,000: great opposition being made to it by Sir William Curtis and Sir Charles Price, both of civic fame.

The first stone of the south pier of this bridge was laid by Lord Keith, on the 25th of May, 1815, who, with the gentlemen of the committee of management, partook of a cold collation on a temporary bridge erected on the works. This

important undertaking was finished in something less than five years; and opened at midnight, in April, 1819. It is doubtless the finest iron bridge in existence. The length is seven hundred feet, and the width forty-two feet. The arches are of gigantic dimensions, the centre arch having a span of two hundred and forty feet, and each of the two side ones two hundred and ten feet. The whole of Southwark-bridge, the piers and abutments excepted, is of *cast-iron*. It may perhaps strike the eye as being too ponderous; and such in truth it really is, several pieces of casting weighing ten tons. The height of the centre arch above low water is fifty-five feet; and the entire weight of iron in the bridge is about five thousand seven hundred and eighty tons. The accuracy of the work, generally, will be thought surprising, when we know that on removing the timber framework the centre arch sunk only $1\frac{7}{8}$ of an inch. The period, probably, is not far distant when the toll for foot-passengers, horses, and carriages, will be removed, and the full benefit to be received from this noble piece of art become more apparent.

BLACKFRIARS BRIDGE.—The building of great public works is calculated to arouse latent talent, and bring artists of a superior order into notice, who otherwise might have remained in oblivion. Soon after the completion of Westminster-bridge, the corporation of London determined to build a bridge from the eastern end of Fleet-street to the opposite shore. Accordingly, by public advertisement, plans were solicited to be sent in; and we may be sure that there was ultimately no want of choice. Mr. Mylne, a young Scotchman, who had just returned from pursuing his studies at Rome, sent in a plan, which, after considerable opposition, and a careful examination of it by eight competent gentlemen, was approved, and Mr. Mylne was

accordingly chosen, in 1760, as the architect and surveyor. Mr. Myle proposed that the bridge should consist of nine elliptical arches, the centre a hundred feet wide, and the others, on each side, decreasing toward the extremities of the structure, till the breadth of the last should be seventy feet. The entire length to be nine hundred and ninety-five feet, the width forty-two.

The first pile was driven, in the middle of the Thames, on the 7th of May, 1760; but, in a few days, a west-country barge drove against it and broke it. The piers were to be built with *caissons*, piled; and the first caisson was launched on the 19th of May, and, after a short delay, duly descended into its place. The caissons, judging from their present distorted positions, must have been laid somewhat carelessly. Sir Thomas Chitty, the lord-mayor, laid the first stone on the 31st of October, attended by a brilliant assemblage of persons.

This important undertaking went on successfully, so that the centre arch was opened on the 1st of October, 1764. A temporary footway having been made across the arches, foot passengers were allowed to pass in 1766; and, in November, 1769, the bridge was completely finished. The approaches and other necessary improvement proceeded more slowly. The funds for this national undertaking were raised by loan, on the security of the City, and by tolls on the bridge. Government however, very properly, in the course of a few years, purchased the tolls, and the bridge became free. The entire cost of this useful structure was £152,840 3s. 10d. No artist in modern times at least, was ever worse paid for a public work, than was Mr. Myle. The bridge, of course, brought him into considerable repute, and hereby perhaps, he was ultimately remunerated.

Besides the error committed in the placing of the *caissons*, it was soon discovered that the *materiel* employed, viz., Portland-stone, was but ill suited for a work designed to last for ages, from its peculiar unfitness in resisting the action of water. In 1813, Blackfriars Bridge was surveyed, when it appeared that almost every part of the work required reparation. An Act of Parliament was obtained, and the necessary repairs gone into, which were not completed until November, 1840. The substantial repairs were judiciously executed; but, by raising the ends of the bridge, so as to lessen the ascent to, and the descent from the bridge, (perhaps necessary) and substituting a heavy parapet for the picturesque grace and lightness of an open balustrade, detract considerably from the beauty of the bridge when viewed from the river or the neighbouring banks.

THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

The Spectator somewhere speaks of an individual who was accustomed to thank God for making him a *Frenchman*. Without any desire to descry such a sentiment, we, on our part, are often disposed to render thanks to the great disposer of all events for making us *Englishmen*. And this feeling never becomes stronger than when reviewing some of those more recent alterations connected with our *mighty metropolis*. We remember the time when the BRITISH MUSEUM, of which we now propose to give a short notice, was regarded in no other light than a great *curiosity shop*, which might indeed be seen but not until after giving a long notice of such an inten-

tion ; and then the visitors were conducted from room to room accompanied by a travelling guide as if to be the general expositor of a *menagerie*. The first time, for example, that we ever visited this national *depôt* of learning, we did so with an order which had six weeks to run. Access to the library was likewise nearly as difficult ; so that the very purposes of a national institution became neutralized by the extraordinary manner in which it was conducted.

Our fathers have been borne away by the stream of time, and their successors have by a very tedious process removed, first one impediment then another, to the free inspection of the Museum generally ; and every facility is now afforded to the student desirous of consulting this extensive and invaluable stock of books, whether printed or in manuscript ; for these facilities every Englishman ought to rejoice, not merely for the personal gratification which he or even his countrymen, may derive from such an establishment ; but also, for the advantages which foreigners visiting England, may possess of searching the hidden treasure of this inexhaustible *mine*. We repeat that there is a luxury in the recollection that we have *something*, amidst the everlasting *din* of trade and commerce, of which, as Englishmen we may boast, and to which we may direct a learned and enquiring brother, though he should have come from the very ends of the earth. In literature there must always be a general rivalry, but it is only one of brethren since he that happily arrives at any undiscovered goal, obtains a conquest not merely for himself, but for his compeers also. And since such facilities of access to this National Repository have been afforded, it is delightful to see what a moral renovation is being accomplished amongst the working classes of our community. Let our intelligent readers only walk through



EGYPTIAN ROOM, BRITISH MUSEUM

the rooms of the BRITISH MUSEUM during the holidays of Easter and Witsuntide to be convinced of this fact. Here husbands will be found pointing out to their wives the memorials of nature, of art worthy of their observation; fathers giving information to their children on subjects more than they themselves know; and young men talking over natural science with their *bonnes amies*, commonly called *sweet hearts*; All being decently clothed, and well conducted. If our national establishments do nothing more than this, the advantages thus obtained are of immense value.

Nearly a century has elapsed since the BRITISH MUSEUM first originated. Its rise is due to the public spirit of Sir Hans Sloane, who during a long practice as a physician in London, had accumulated a number of valuable printed books and manuscripts, together with a large number of subjects of Natural History, and Works of Art, than had ever before formed one collection in this country. The cost to the Doctor is said considerably to have exceeded £50,000. He directed by his will, that these, after his decease, should be offered to the British Parliament. This offer being wisely accepted, Sir Hans' representatives received from Government the sum of £20,000 under the original act of incorporation. To this collection was added the valuable library of Manuscripts collected by Sir Robert Cotton, a small library formed by Major Arthur Edwards, together with the numerous and valuable manuscripts formerly the property of Edward Harley, Earl of Oxford.

A *nucleus* being thus formed for a National Library and Museum, the trustees under an act of parliament, in the spring of 1754, purchased a spacious mansion in Great Russel Street Bloomsbury, built about the year 1680, for Ralph, first Duke

of Montagu. This was a beautiful and spacious building well adapted for the purposes for which it was designed, and then known as Montagu House. The whole of this structure has gradually been removed, the last vestige of it disappearing in 1845. The entire new buildings are not yet completed; but yet they are in a state of sufficient forwardness for affording ample provision for the large collections of books, and other important subjects connected with either nature or art, which have since accumulated.

The articles now contained in the British Museum had for many years increased very slowly, but in 1801, on the arrival of the Egyptian Antiquities from Alexandria, Montagu House was found to be wholly incompetent for the reception of these most important acquisitions. The talented, but ambitious and ill-fated, Napoleon Bonaparte in the year 1798, was sent by the French directory to Egypt, for the nominal purpose of subduing that country, but having, no doubt some more important ulterior object. The British thought it necessary to send the lion-hearted Nelson after him, with an English fleet, and a number of troops under General Abercrombie. Nelson first captured or destroyed the French squadron in Aboukir Bay; and ultimately the French army capitulated to the British and a number of statues and monuments which had been collected by the French *savans*, or learned men, who had accompanied Napoleon fell into our possession. On the arrival of these important acquisitions in England, they were presented to the British Museum, or rather to the British Nation, by order of His Majesty George III.. Most of these monuments being too massy for the floors of any private building, the expediency of making an additional building for their accommodation became apparent. This was rendered still more

indispensable by the purchase of the Townley Marbles in 1805. A gallery competent for the reception of both of these collections was completed two years afterwards.

Thus matters remained until 1823, when George IV. made the British Nation a most princely donation of the library collected by his late father George III., but on the express understanding that the library should be kept distinct and entire. Preparations were therefore now made for the erection of a Museum entirely new. The eastern wing of the new building was forthwith begun, and on ground which then was a portion of the Museum Garden. This gallery was finished in 1828, and a portion of it appropriated to the newly acquired library. Since that, the northern, and a part of the western compartment of a projected square, have been completed. The principal floor of the *northern* portion is devoted to the general library : that of the *western*, both below and above, to ancient Sculpture and Antiquities generally. A part of the *eastern* wing is devoted to the Library of Manuscripts. The upper floors both of the *eastern* and *northern* sides of the square, contain the splendid Collections of Natural History. The principal facade on the southern side, is at present in active progress, and ere long, it is believed, the whole building will be completely finished. It will then present a most noble and commanding appearance from the chief entrance in Great Russel Street.

The more popular parts of this grand depository of learning and art, are open to general inspection three days in every week, the holiday weeks not excepted. During this latter period, ten thousand persons have visited the Museum in the course of a single day. The days open to the public, are Monday, Wednesday, and Friday. No part of the library is

seen by the general visitor ; the mere sight of the backs of books would prove but a very uninteresting subject, and would likewise be a general hindrance to those engaged in looking out books for the use of students in the reading-rooms. The same remark is applicable to that part of the collection which requires individual inspection, such as coins, medals, drawings, prints, *herbanums*, &c. The rooms in which these are deposited, can be viewed only by a very few persons at a time, and by particular permission. Neither are the Reading-rooms open to indiscriminate admission. This would be entirely incompatible with that quiet which must ever prevail where intellectual pursuits are carried on. Every facility, notwithstanding, is given to all classes of persons desirous of consulting the library, whether of printed books or manuscripts. For this purpose, the party must be introduced to the librarian of the Institution by a recommendation of a trustee, or at least of some person known at the Museum, when the applicant usually receives a ticket of admission for six months, renewable at the expiration of that time, unless something in the interim should have arisen which will not permit such a privilege to be continued. Such a step is seldom resorted to, except in extreme cases. That part of the building appropriated to the purpose of reading, consists chiefly of two large rooms, well warmed and ventilated, with the surrounding walls covered by about eight thousand volumes of books, principally books of reference, as dictionaries, encyclopædias, &c., to which the reader has free access, the presses containing the books being always open. there is likewise every convenience for study, such as tables, book-stands, pens, ink, &c. A catalogue of the whole number of printed books is also here deposited, comprised in about eighty volumes folio, partly printed, partly in manuscript. The

assistant librarians are very prompt in supplying the readers with such books as they may require, the titles, &c. of the books, being first looked out in the catalogue, copied upon a small piece of paper with a certain printed form, to which the student is required to affix his name. This paper, or papers, if he has more than one book, or one set of books, is returned to him on his delivering the books which he has had. to one of the librarians before leaving the room. No books being allowed, under certain circumstances, to be taken out of the room. This is a delightful place for study, the utmost order being preserved, and every facility given to individuals in search of information on any particular subject. Modern books are more difficult of access than others, since some time is required before they can obtain a place in the catalogue.

It is difficult to give our readers a condensed view of the contents of the British Museum, as it now exists, (1847). Of the books and manuscripts it may suffice to say, that besides those which originally belonged to Sloane, Cotton, Edwards, and Harly, the library now contains the printed books and manuscripts collected by the sovereigns of England from the time of Henry VII., the Hargrave collection of law books, the Lansdowne manuscripts, Halhed's Oriental manuscripts, Burney's library of books and manuscripts, the Maddox collection of manuscripts, the library of Dr. Birch, Tyrwhitt's select collection of the classics, Sir W. Musgrave's collection of books and manuscripts, Rev. Mr. Cracherade's munificent donation of books and prints, Sir Joseph Bankes's library, principally on natural history, King George the Second's present of a valuable collection of pamphlets, from the beginning of the civil war, in the reign of Charles I., to the Restoration, the noble grant by George IV. of the well selected library of his

royal father, George III., comprising sixty-five thousand volumes, and Sir R. C. Hoare's present of a large number of books, chiefly Italian.

The visitor to this grand *dépôt* of science having passed the entrance, in Great Russel-street, is at present (1847) conducted by a temporary staircase to a landing, whence he can descend to the Gallery of Antiquities, presently to be more particularly mentioned, or ascend to the ETHNOGRAPHICAL ROOM, which contains various *miscellaneous articles*, chiefly of human art and superstition, in a state nearer to, or farther from, savageness. Such as various figures, idols, arms, &c., from China and Japan; baskets, and specimens of native cloth from Africa; Esquimaux dresses, &c., brought to England by Captain Sir Edward Parry in 1822, and various curiosities collected during Captain Beechay's voyage of discovery, in 1825-28; different articles of dress and war, from the west coast of North America, and the South Seas, by Captain Cook and others; numerous Mexican curiosities purchased at the sale of Mr. Bullock's museum; Arctic antiquities from the island of Sacrificios; implements and utensils from English and French Guiana; ornaments, and other manufactures of the ancient Peruvians; specimens of matting, cloth, mats, &c., from the Marquesas, Tahiti, New Zealand, Navigators' Islands, &c. Many of these specimens were, half a century ago, surveyed with more intense interest than at present, from their great novelty; now so many ship-loads of such articles have been brought to England, and described by so many persons visiting the southern hemisphere, that the interest taken in such curiosities has greatly declined. These very articles, however, will shortly become more rare than ever, from the simple circumstance that the natives of the islands of the Pacific having improved in knowledge, cease to

manufacture these articles: for example, articles which have a reference to warfare, which were formerly elaborated with great difficulty and perseverance, such as clubs, spears, &c., have been superseded by the more polite and Christian mode of committing murder by the musket, so as to be no longer made.

The collection of animals in the Museum is contained in two *galleries*, and arranged in two series. The student of natural history will find a list of the *genera* in a small work entitled, “A Guide to the Zoological Collection:” list of the specimens of mammalia, with their synonymes; parts 1 and 3 of a list of the birds; parts 1 and 2 of the reptiles; and part 1 of the specimens of lepidopterous insects and myriapades, are already printed, and may be had in the hall of the Museum. The beasts, birds, reptiles, fish, and smaller animals kept in spirits, are exhibited in wall-cases. The hard parts of the radiated, annulose and molluscous animals, as shells, corals, sea-eggs, starfish, crustacea, and insects, are arranged, as also are the skulls of the smaller beasts, and the eggs of birds, in the table cases of the several rooms. All these specimens are arranged according to the most approved modern classification, affording not only subjects of intense interest to the mere transient observer, but most extensive and ample information upon every branch of natural history, which the student can possibly desire. These immensely extended collections are placed in the *mammalia saloon*, and the *eastern and northern zoological galleries*. Suspended on the walls of the eastern zoological gallery, will be found a series of interesting and valuable portraits arranged in order, from the left hand of the mammalia saloon. They are *one hundred and sixteen* in number, being divided into five compartments. Their present position possibly

is designed to be only temporary, since many of them, being but of small dimensions, are very imperfectly seen from their great distance from the spectator. A few of the portraits have already, from their diminutive size, been transformed elsewhere.

The rooms on the north side of the north wing are appropriated to the *oryctosnotic*, or *mineralogical collection*, and to that of *pataontology*, or *organic remains*. These collections are of wonderful extent, and surpassing beauty and interest, exceeding, we presume, for extent and value, any others in Europe. The arrangement of the minerals, with slight deviations, is that of Berzelius, founded upon the electro-chemical theory, and the doctrine of definite proportions. This part of the Museum though not quite complete, offers to the student who has formed for himself the most extensive plan of self-improvement, very ample materials. The sixty cases, with occasional duplicates, contain specimens of every variety of metallic substances, amounting in the whole, to not less than eight hundred and forty distinct families. Six rooms of the *north gallery* are devoted to the collection of *organic remains*, and are of magnificent extent. The fossil vegetables are arranged according to a botanical system, so far as these fossil remains, from their doubtful nature, appear to admit of classification. The wall-cases of rooms III. and IV. contain the osseous remains of the class *reptilæ*; amongst which will be found the order *enalsauria*, or *sea-lizards*, and the *ichthyosauri*, or *fish-lizards*. In the centre of room V. is a complete skeleton of the large extinct elk, the bones of which are so frequently found in the bogs of Ireland. Room VI. is devoted to the osseous remains of the *pachydermata*, and *endentata*. Amongst the former may be mentioned the *American martodon*, and

the *elephas primigenius* or *mammoth* of earlier writers; and of the *megatherium*, brought from the neighbourhood of Buenos Ayres. In the same room is deposited the *fossil human skeleton* brought from Guadaloupe, and presented to the Museum by the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. The student surveys these *leaves* of the book of nature with wonder and surprise, and having anxiously gazed upon these *giant* remains of by-gone times, he retires from them, scarcely believing the *reality* of that of which he is *certain*.

Having conducted the reader through the labyrinth of natural productions, although in a very hurried manner, we return to the works of art, as exhibited in the *Gallery of Antiquities*. The noble collection of *Greek and Roman Sculptures* contained in this gallery, with few exceptions belonged to the late Charles Townley, Esq. They bear the strongest impress upon them of that chaste and vigorous knowledge of sculpture, for which the Greeks and Romans were pre-eminently distinguished. The Greeks, who were the special models of the Romans, had the finest opportunity, from their earliest history, of studying the just proportions of the human figure. Living in a fine climate, with a dress removeable almost at pleasure, contented with a frugal and homely diet, inured from infancy to all kinds of manual labour, their games and sports being for the most part, performed unencumbered with clothing. All these circumstances tended greatly to produce the most graceful forms as to figure in the people themselves, and placed the finest human models, under the constant inspection of the numerous sculptors, who at a very early period adorned the classic country of Greece. The Greeks might have learned the first principles of their art from the more ancient artists amongst the Egyptians; but the sculpture

of Greece attained to a degree of perfection which has since hardly ever been equalled, and never excelled. Let even an inexperienced eye but compare some of the exquisitely finished *busts* of the Greeks, as found in this invaluable collection, with any from the chisel of a modern artist, whether foreign or British, and it will not long remain a matter of doubt to whom the meed of praise most justly belongs. And if from busts and statues, a comparison be instituted between the classical and highly wrought buildings of ancient Greece, and the massy piles of *gingerbread* structures, the productions of our own enlightened times and our artists, are not merely eclipsed by such comparison, but disgraced also. For can it be forgotten, that with the models of the Parthenon, Acropolis, and other buildings of Greece, our Metropolis, in the middle of the nineteenth century, should be disfigured with such erections as the *brick-dusty* Library and Hall of Lincoln's Inn, or the elaborate and ugly *filigree* of the New Houses of Parliament.

In the centre of the IX. room stood *the celebrated Barberini Vase*, which for more than two centuries was a principal ornament of the Barberini Palace. It was brought to England by Sir William Hamilton, but purchased some years ago by the Duchess of Portland. The material of which the vase is made, is glass : the figures on it are in relief, of a beautiful opaque white, the ground being a dark transparent blue. This superb and invaluable specimen of Greek art, was wantonly destroyed by a reckless miscreant, (we hope for humanity's sake) a *maniac*. The treasures in the British Museum have, since that untoward event, been placed under the protection of a more *stringent law*, calculated to restrain and punish any future *marauders*.

THE GRAND CENTRAL SALOON, AND ANTE ROOM next claim the attention of the visitor, comprising many exquisite specimens of Greek and Roman Sculptures, Bas-reliefs and Roman Sepulchral Antiquities.

Our readers are now to be introduced into a truly classical, not to say *holy ground*, the PHIGALIAN SALOON. The bas-reliefs in this Saloon claim special notice, not only for their antiquity and exquisite elaboration, but also because the precise time of their execution is known. Pausanias, in his description of the temple of Apollo Epicurius (or the deliverer) built on mount Cotylion, at a little distance from the ancient city of Phigalia in Arcadia, informs us expressly that this temple was built by Ictinus an architect, contemporary with Pericles who contemplated building the Parthenon four hundred and thirty nine years before the Christian era. These bas-reliefs composed the frieze in the interior of the Cella, and represent the battle of the Centaurs and Lapitha, and the combat between the Greeks and Amazons. They demonstrate, like other Grecian works of art, a perfect knowledge of the human figure in all its diversified positions and contortions. Various fragments from the same temple will also greatly interest the intelligent observer of these wonders of ancient art. The restored figures, &c. of the temple of Jupiter Parhelliuss, in the Island of Egina, committed to the hands of Mr. Thorwalsden by Mr. Cockerell, no less claim the notice of the visitor.

All the articles in the ELGIN SALOON, with a few exceptions, were formerly the property of the Earl of Elgin, and purchased of him. The specimens of ancient art deposited in this room, are of a most magnificent description, being the *metopes*, frieze, and other portions of the Parthenon. The figures

are in *alto rilievo*, and executed with great spirit. We sincerely hope that our young artists will avail themselves of these magnificent remains of the Greeks, that the statues and buildings hereafter to be erected in London, may be imbued with a portion of that lofty spirit which here reigns so triumphantly. The battle of the Centaurs and Lapidæ, even in their present dilapidated state, exhibit that incomparable skill by which they were originally brought into existence.

The objects in the EGYPTIAN SALOON, though of a very different character from the finished sculptures of the Greeks, and of a much earlier period, are notwithstanding of immense importance in the history of art, pouring an astonishing flood of light upon the history of a singularly interesting people. We owe them to the memorable expedition of Napoleon Bonaparte to Egypt, where many of these remains were collected by the French, but came into the possession of the English army at the capitulation of Alexandria, in September 1801, and being brought to England in 1820, under the care of General Turner, were sent, by order of his MAJESTY, GEORGE III., to the British Museum. They form a collection of which an Englishman, under any circumstances, may justly boast; but without wishing to encourage any unworthy feelings towards our neighbours, and allies, the French, we cannot but remember that these very *remains* were purchased by the blood of many of our poor fellows, who perished in that memorable struggle, the result of which has so much changed the general appearance of Europe. They are, however, chiefly valuable, not because the trophies of victory, but from the important illustrations which they furnish of ages long since passed away.

The *Etruscan room* contains a splendid collection of Græco-



LONDON AND LIVERPOOL BANK

Italian vases, of various epochs and styles. These specimens of art are arranged chronologically, and according to the localities in which they were found.

The only remaining rooms necessary to mention are the medal and print room, neither of which can be seen but by a few persons at a time, and by particular permission. The medals consist of Greek, Roman, Anglo-Saxon, English, Anglo-Gallic, Scotch, and Irish coins, with those of modern foreign nations. The print room contains an extensive and valuable collection of prints and drawings.

A synopsis of the contents of the British Museum is published, and may be had in the entrance hall of the Institution.

THE LONDON AND WESTMINSTER BANK.

AMONG the metropolitan improvements, few better deserve our attention than those in the locality to which we would now direct the attention of our readers. The completion of the north front of the Bank of England, and the erection of a handsome building, denominated the LONDON AND WESTMINSTER BANK, at the north-eastern extremity of the same, have given a very improved appearance to the ancient city-street of Lothbury: especially since the architects of this new structure, in conjunction with the commissioners for city improvements, have judiciously placed its principal *façade*, six feet back from the buildings which preceded it. The line of road to the south end of Moorgate-street, that much frequented and important thoroughfare, having, by this means, received an invaluable accession.

The LONDON and WESTMINSTER BANK was opened December 26th, 1838, and has peculiar claims upon our notice, being the first joint stock bank established in London, and one whose successful management has led to the formation of similar institutions. It was built by Mr. S. Grimsdell, under the superintendence of Messrs. Cockerell and Tite.

The whole structure occupies a site of nearly eighty feet in frontage, and ninety in depth. The entrance front possesses, not only from its extent, but from its architectural treatment, a bold and imposing character. It displays, indeed, no columnar decorations, but its composition has the much greater merit of strict appropriateness, simplicity in general forms; such simplicity, we mean, as conduces to unity, together with a perfect expression of purpose; an air of solidity and strength, and a judicious equality of decoration. The façade consists of one general plane or face, broken only by an advancing pier at each end. It has seven apertures in the length, and three tiers of them in the height; the two lower tiers comprehending the openings on the ground and one-pair floors, are included in one architectural story, or order; the upper tier, which consists of the windows of the two-pair floor, being contained in an attic story. The whole of the front is of Portland stone, with the exception of the plinth. The substructure is a stylobate, or continuous pedestal, resting upon a deep rock-faced plinth. From this stylobate rise broad pilasters, or rusticated piers, in courses of alternate widths; the whole including two tiers of openings, and surmounted by a regular entablature, the cornice of which is enriched with modillions. Of the seven compartments into which the front is divided, the central one is somewhat wider than the rest, and displays, on the ground floor, a handsome entrance doorway of large proportions, and

deeply recessed, approached by several steps externally, and having the flight continued within. The remaining intervals afford six large windows, each being so wide as to admit of subdivision by two mullions and a transom of cast iron, of elegant design and novel structure; the isolated mullion partaking of the character of an antique candelabrum at the base, and finishing with a scroll or console at the top; very wide and lofty Venetian windows are thus obtained, without affecting the real or apparent solidity of the fabric, and the great and important problem of obtaining the largest possible admission of light, with the smallest obstruction of solids or piers, is most effectually, and, at the same time, architecturally attained. The windows above these, upon the one-pair story, are narrower than the former, and leave, on each side between the rusticated piers, intervals available for decoration: these are sculptured alternately with caducei, the invariable commercial symbol, and with the bundle of sticks, expressive of the *vis unita fortior*, so appropriate to the union, or joint-stock association, of this establishment. Upon the upper or attic story are windows somewhat smaller than the last, decorated with complete dressings and pedimented cornices, and having the intermediate piers rusticated as high as the tops of the windows. The attic is finished by a kind of panelled string-course, studded with lions' heads, of very original design and bold effect, and surmounted by a regular balustrade. In consequence of the advance of the two end piers in the principal order before mentioned, there is gained in front of the attic story, which is not similarly broken, sufficient space for the display of two statues of seated female figures, emblematical of the commercial interests of London and Westminster, and having shields respectively with the arms of those cities.

The entrance vestibule or avenue, has, on each side, a line of four plain Doric columns, with appropriate entablature and decorative mouldings. From this ample vestibule, access is gained on the right to the country bank, the principal staircase, and some official apartments; and, directly in front, to the principal, or town bank. The latter apartment is not only by far the most considerable in the building, but is unequalled in importance by anything of the kind in London, except in the case of some offices of the Bank of England, and in altitude it exceeds even them. Its general form is a square of about thirty-seven feet, whose height is that of the entire building—namely, fifty-nine feet six inches—and it is extended by lateral additions, east and west, to a portion of this height. Of the remaining apartments, upon which our limits forbid our entering, we have only to remark that they are large, airy, and well laid out for the various business purposes of the establishment.

Our readers will recollect that in the article on the Bank of England, we stated that when the act for renewing the bank charter, passed in 1833, it was declared to be the law that companies or partnerships, consisting of more than six persons might carry on the business of banking in London. Immediately after the passing of this act, a prospectus was issued, proposing to form the London and Westminster Bank. The shares, however, were taken up but tardily, and the bank did not commence business until March 10, 1834, and then only with a paid-up capital of £50,000. Previous to the commencement of business, the directors applied to the committee of private bankers for admission to the clearing house. This was refused. The directors also applied for permission to have a drawing account at the Bank of England. This too, was refused. Moreover, a bill brought into parliament, in 1834, to

authorize the company to sue and be sued in the names of their public officers was lost; although afterwards granted by the 7 and 8 Victoria, c. 113; and the farther privilege by the same act, c. 32, of accepting bills drawn at a less period than six months after date.

Notwithstanding these difficulties, the bank continued to advance, and by the date of the first annual report, March 4, 1835, the paid-up capital, increased by two calls of £5 each upon the shareholders, amounted to £244,945. By the end of December 1835, the number of shares issued had increased to seventeen thousand eight hundred and eighteen. Soon afterwards the directors made a fourth call of £5 per share, payable the following April. This made £20 paid upon each share, and the whole paid-up capital exceeded £400,000. The dividend on the year ending December 1835 was at the rate of £4 per cent. At the commencement of the year 1836, the bank extended its branches. In addition to a branch at Waterloo-place, Pall-Mall, opened on the same day as the head office in Lothbury; the bank opened on the 4th of January, a branch in High Holborn, and another in White-chapel; and on the 29th of February, another was opened in Wellington-street, Southwark. In the following June a branch was opened in Oxford-street. In this year the directors issued nine thousand three hundred and thirty-three shares at a premium of £4 10s. per share, by which the sum of £41,998 10s. was realized as premiums. The total paid-up capital on December 31, 1836, amounted to £597,225, on which a dividend was paid at the rate of £5 per cent.

The company continuing to flourish, the directors held their thirteenth annual meeting on the bank premises, Lothbury, the 3rd of March, 1847, when a highly satisfactory report was

made to the proprietors. Of this we subjoin an extract. "The profits of the past year," says the report, "after defraying the total expense of the Establishment, making allowance for all bad and doubtful debts, and paying the Income Tax, amount to £74,175 15s. 9d. Out of these profits the directors paid last September, a dividend at the rate of £6 per cent. per annum, for the half-year ending the 30th of June, and they now declare a dividend at the same rate, for the half-year ending the 31st of December. They also declare a bonus of 8s. per share, which is equal to £2 per cent. upon the capital. After the payment of these dividends and this bonus, making together £64,000, there will remain out of the profits of the last year, a surplus of £10,175 15s. 9d. to be added to the reserve fund, which will then amount to £98,424 14s. 1d."

The following statement will clearly shew the actual position of the establishment; and, being an official document, no apology need be offered for its publication:—

<i>Dr.</i> <i>London and Westminster Bank, December 31, 1846.</i>				<i>Cr.</i>			
	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
To Proprietors for				By Government Se-			
paid up Capital...	800,000	0	0	curities	938,717	10	0
To the Public for				By other Securities	2,676,720	1	10
Deposits	3,280,864	0	0	By Cash in hand ...	634,575	11	6
To the Public for							
Circular Notes...	6,724	11	3				
To Rest, or Surplus							
Fund	88,248	16	4				
To Profit on the past							
year.....	74,175	15	9				
	<hr/>				<hr/>		
	£4,250,013	3	4		£4,250,013	3	4
	<hr/>				<hr/>		

<i>Dr.</i>	<i>Profit and Loss.</i>			<i>Cr.</i>
	£	s.	d.	£ s. d.
Payment of the Dividend on the 10th September, 1846, at the rate of Six per Cent. per annum, for the half-year ending the 30th June, 1846 ...	24,000	0	0	
Payment of the Dividend now declared at the rate of Six per Cent. per annum, for the half-year ending 31st Dec. 1846	24,000	0	0	
Payment of the Bonus of Two per Cent. now declared.....	16,000	0	0	
Balance of unappropriated Profits	98,424	12	1	
	£162,424	12	1	
				Balance of unappropriated Profits on the 31st Dec. 1845
				88,248 16 4
				Net Profit of the Year 1846, after defraying the total Expense of Management, paying the Income Tax, and making provision for all bad and doubtful debts
				74,175 15 9
				£162,424 12 1
				Balance of unappropriated Profits
				£98,424 12 1

The *principles* of the LONDON AND WESTMINSTER BANK, without going into any elaborate details, may be briefly stated. Its first principle, accordingly, is, that the *Bank* should consist of an unlimited number of persons. The present number of partners, whose names are registered at the Stamp Office, and are printed with the annual report of the Directors, being more than a thousand. The advantage obtained by a Joint Stock Proprietary is, that those partners who are also customers to the Bank, participate in the profits made by their own accounts. Secondly, that the Bank should

have a large paid-up capital. And by the report before referred to, it appears that the capital of the Bank is £5,000,000 sterling, in 50,000 shares of £100 each. Of these shares 40,000 have been issued. The sum of £20 has been paid on each share, so that the capital actually paid up at this date is £800,000. The remaining 10,000 shares are in course of issue, and the paid-up capital will, by the 15th of October, 1847, be £1,000,000. This presents the most perfect security to the public, and gives the Bank ample means for affording to its customers every reasonable accommodation.

A farther object, thirdly, is to meet the convenience of smaller as well as larger traders. Hence current accounts are received on the same principles as those observed by the London bankers, every person connected with the establishment signing a declaration of secrecy as to the accounts of individuals. Parties desirous of having current accounts, without being under the necessity of keeping a balance, to be charged a small commission, proportionate to the amount of their transactions. This extends the advantage of a banking account to parties having moderate incomes, or who in the course of their business find ample employment for their capital.

Fourthly, to popularize the system of banking in London by allowing interest upon larger or smaller sums of money lodged on deposit receipts. By this plan, sums from £10 to £1000 are received on deposit, at a rate of interest to be fixed at the time, and they are re-payable upon demand, without notice. For these sums, receipts are granted called deposit receipts. By allowing interest for small sums, the benefit of the deposit system is extended to all classes of the community. Sums of £1000 and upwards, are also received on deposit

receipts, upon such terms as may be agreed upon, with regard to the rate of interest, and the time of re-payment. Trustees and others who have money, which they cannot immediately employ, may thus obtain an interest for it, until an opportunity occurs for its permanent investment. Parties may lodge money upon an interest account who have no current account, and those who have current accounts, may transfer any portion of their balance to an interest account.

Fifthly, the issuing of circular notes for the use of travellers and residents on the continent. These notes are payable at every important place in Europe, enabling a traveller to vary his route without inconvenience. No expence is incurred except the price of the stamp, and when cashed no charge is made for commission. These notes may be obtained at the city office in Lothbury, or at any of the branches. The bank likewise takes the agency of joint stock banks, private bankers, and other parties residing at a distance.

And finally, for the better accommodation of persons residing in different parts of the metropolis, five branch offices have been opened. For Westminster, 1, St. James's Square; Bloomsbury, 213, High Holborn; Southwark, 3, Wellington Street, Borough; Eastern Branch, 87, High Street, Whitechapel; St. Marylebone, 4, Stratford Place, Oxford Street. The whole under the general management of James William Gilbert, City Office, Lothbury.

These principles we remark in conclusion, are at once so just and advantageous, that they cannot fail of commending themselves to the good sense of every capitalist, whether larger or smaller, commercial or otherwise.

METROPOLITAN GARDENS.

ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS.—*Regent's Park.* | SURREY ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS.
 VICTORIA PARK.—*Bonner's Fields.* | TEMPLE GARDENS.

It is indispensably necessary that large towns should be made as airy as possible, and that besides open spaces being left for squares, that large portions of land in the immediate vicinity, should likewise be appropriated for the health and recreation of the inhabitants. Parks and fields, we acknowledge are better suited for such a purpose than inclosed gardens however well laid out; and the time seems to have arrived when this important subject is receiving due consideration from government.

Hyde Park, St. James's Park, Regent's Park, and last but not least, Victoria Park, in the eastern part of the metropolis, promise well; and are duly appreciated by a teeming population. But the gardens which form the centre of the numerous squares especially at the west-end of the town, though inclosed, offer at least so many breathing places for the inmates of the immediate locality, more particularly for the young. Of this description are the Temple Gardens, delightfully situated on the banks of the Thames, and always kept in good order.

Gardens more or less connected with the progress of science are also to be found in the immediate neighbourhood of London. Closed indeed many of them are to the *poor man*; but to others whose pockets happen to be blessed with the *shining shilling*, a ready entrance is obtained. Why such places have not been opened by the Government of the country, for the use of *the many*, it is not, perhaps, easy to determine; yet certain is the fact that it has never been the policy of our government *in olden times*, whether Whig or Tory, to offer

direct encouragement for the establishment of places to which the masses of our population might resort, either for purposes of instruction or amusement. In other countries public gardens for both purposes, have been established, of which the well known *Jardin des Plantes*, at Paris, may be named as a memorable example. In England, the duty of fostering both science and art, has been thrown upon the people themselves.

Yet in reference to practical gardening itself, one exception from this may be mentioned, namely the gardens of Kew, the property of the crown; and which are said to contain the largest collection of exotic plants in the world, especially of those from Australia. Indeed during the long French war, Kew was almost the only place in Europe to which exotic plants were introduced in any considerable quantity. The botanical gardens of Kew were established by the Princess Dowager of Wales, mother to George III.; but for many years, from the illiberal manner in which they were conducted, though supplied with funds from the public purse, remained shut up from public inspection. This wretched system, however, has been abandoned, and the collection of plants and trees, although greatly impaired, has become accessible to all classes, daily from one to six o'clock. The visitors of London should not fail to inspect this interesting and important spot.

Amongst the public gardens of the metropolis, those of the Horticultural Society, at Chiswick, deserve a distinguished place. They were established about twenty-five years ago, by a few public-spirited individuals, for the double purpose of experimental researches in horticultural science, and also as a station whence the most valuable, useful and ornamental plants of all kinds, might be distributed through the country: for these purposes, the society has been pre-eminently useful.

Young men designed for gardeners here likewise receive a practical education to qualify them for their work. The collection of forest and fruit trees is, probably, not to be surpassed in Europe. Neither have the culture of flowers and vegetables been overlooked. It seems hardly credible that the different species of trees and plants in a British collection should be upwards of 25,000. Tickets are required for admission to the Chiswick Gardens, which may be obtained of any member of the Society.

ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS, REGENT'S PARK.—These gardens, though belonging to a private company, and accessible on Sundays only to members; yet from the comparative facility of access to them, may well be denominated *public*. A shilling each person will gain admission. In this delightful spot science and amusement are most happily blended. The number of fellows or members of the Zoological Society amounts to nearly four thousand, and the corresponding members, British and foreign, to about a hundred and fifty. Through their united exertions an immense amount of information relative to the habits, structure, &c. of animals has been obtained. The public likewise has the advantage of retiring to a pretty plot of land, beautifully laid out as a garden, with shrubs and flowers, and kept, at every season of the year, in the most excellent order. Could the poorer classes, on particular days, or parts of the day, be admitted gratuitously, little else would remain to be wished for.

The rural situation of these gardens cannot be surpassed; and the attention given to the animals and birds unremitting. Still there must be something yet to learn, to prevent the great mortality by which the inmates of these gardens are so much diminished. For it is a fact, which has not escaped the notice





VIEW OF THE COAST OF THE BAY OF NAPLES





of the directors and professors, that the amount of sickness and death is much greater in the menagerie of the Regent's Park, than in other localities. The collection in point of extent is most respectable. The number of quadrupeds being more than three hundred, of birds seven hundred, and of reptiles about twenty. The annual number of visitors to this establishment cannot be less, on an average of the last seven years, than three hundred thousand, inclusive of the members and their friends ; nor the annual receipts, exclusive of members' subscriptions, less than £10,000.

The museum, formerly in Leicester Square, has been removed to the Regent's Park, and well deserves the attention of visitors. They will here meet with many of their old friends whom they were accustomed to see in the gardens when alive. The fact of the museum filling so quickly from the living specimens of the society, is a subject of deep interest with every feeling mind.

THE SURREY ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS.—These gardens, although horticulturally considered, very inferior to those of the Regent's Park ; yet, in other respects, will lose nothing by comparison with them. We doubt whether the *carnivora*, or wild beasts, of the Surrey Gardens do not surpass those of any other. Our impression is that they do. Whether this is to be imputed to the particular locality in which they are placed, or to any improved plan in the management of the animals themselves, we pretend not to determine.

The opening of the Surrey Zoological Gardens for the exhibition of *wild beasts* must be regarded as a great improvement upon the system pursued by our predecessors. Future generations will scarcely believe that a pile of buildings, called Exeter 'Change, and occupying one side of a populous street,

West Strand, was, until the year 1830, appropriated to the purposes of a menagerie. Such, however, is the fact. When the improvements in the neighbourhood of the Strand were in progress, Exeter 'Change was pulled down, and the animals removed, for a time, to the King's Mews, Charing Cross, now covered by the National Gallery. Mr. Cross, the enterprising proprietor of Exeter 'Change, removed his collection of animals in 1831, to the Surrey Gardens, which are situated on the southern side of the Thames, and about a mile and a half from Blackfriars Bridge.

The gardens occupy a space of nearly fifteen acres, including a large piece of water formerly supplied only by springs, but now kept constantly full up to the brim, by artificial means. Revelry of a different character from that at present practiced here, was once to be witnessed, these gardens having formerly been part of the manorial estate of Walworth. The festivity of the baronial hall having long since passed away, other scenes of a more rational kind have succeeded; but which, from their own nature, must be no less evanescent.

The principal building in the gardens, is a glazed circular erection, about a thousand feet round, and which is appropriated chiefly to wild beasts. Some very fine specimens of quadrupeds may here be seen, which will amply repay any attention which the visitor may give. The animals in general appear to possess a rude state of health; and from the light construction of the building, may be viewed with great comfort and advantage, at any period of the year. For ourselves, we are free to confess, that the feeding time, to us, is one of peculiar attraction. Hunger thoroughly rouses the energies of the more ferocious quadrupeds, presenting an impressive picture to the eye of the beholder of what these

animals must be when left to range the forest unrestrained. The other parts of the collection are numerous, and well deserving notice from the visitor.

Moreover, the managers of these gardens, willing to *cater* for the public taste, in a large acceptance of that word, have, beside the menagerie and gardens, provided other entertainments for their visitors: sometimes, floral exhibitions, or balloon ascents, or an eruption of Mount Vesuvius, or, as at present, (1847) a pictorial representation of the memorable siege of Gibraltar; in which the attacked *lion* of Old England triumphed gloriously. The Surrey Zoological Gardens are open daily.

We may just add, in conclusion, that the proprietors of this beautiful spot of public amusement, regardless of expence, are, in addition to the numerous attractions which already exist, preparing another both new and interesting. Most of our readers know that the house in which our immortal countryman, Shakespeare, lived and died, situate in the town of Stratford-upon-Avon, has lately been offered for sale, and that government having declined to interfere in this matter, a few private individuals are anxious that funds should be raised for perpetuating this relic of the *old bard*. For the purpose of bringing this plan fully before the public, drawings of this building are in active preparation, from the prolific and talented pencil of our brother Alfred Crowquill, and which will be exhibited shortly in the gardens. We are quite sure that *something* will be produced worthy of public inspection. We wish the proprietors every possible success; not doubting but that this farther effort of theirs will be duly appreciated by every lover of science and art throughout the United Kingdom.

THE EAST INDIA HOUSE.

ALTHOUGH the East India Company, as traders, have parted with much of their former greatness by the loss of their charter, still as a company so distinguished for political aggrandisement they must continue to be interesting to every Briton.

This noble edifice, known by the name of the EAST INDIA HOUSE, is situated in Leadenhall Street, and is one of the greatest ornaments to the easterly district of London. The entrance into it is beneath a portico of six fluted pillars of the Ionic order, supporting a frieze, and two wings surmounted by a balustrade. The tympanum contains several figures designed to represent the protection of George III. over Britannia. On the apex of the pediment stands a fine statue of Britannia; Asia, mounted on a camel, being in the east corner, and Europe upon a horse, in the west.

The interior of this noble structure consists of a grand court room, having a fine design in bas-relief, and various foreign views; a committee room; the old sale room, in which are several marble statues; the committee of correspondence room, being adorned with portraits, and views of Indian architecture; the new sale room, containing several paintings, illustrative of India; the library, comprising a large number of books on the history and jurisprudence of Asia, and an unequalled collection of oriental manuscripts, and Chinese printed books; the museum, consisting of a great diversity of rare and curious articles; and, amongst many others, the trophies and mantle of the fallen Tippoo Saib. The library and museum well deserve the inspection of the curious, and may be viewed by a director's order, or on Saturdays without restriction.

EAST INDIA HOUSE



To give even an epitome of the rise and progress of the East India Company would require an entire volume, forming as it does, an important portion of our national history. Its commercial enterprise is extraordinary; but its political and territorial aggrandisements are without parallel in the annals of the world. The company originated with a few private individuals, in the year 1599, and in London; having a capital of only £30,000, divided into one hundred and one shares. The company, under different charters and alterations, continued to make progress, until in 1708, as arranged with government, the capital stock of the company amounted to £3,200,000. The title which the company assumed was, "*The United Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies.*" The stock of the company, under successive Acts of Parliament, has since increased to £6,000,000, the present capital, and on which dividends are paid.

The home government of the company is vested in the *court of proprietors*, who elect the *directors*, declare the amount of dividend, and make bye-laws, in matters not regulated by Act of Parliament. The votes of the proprietors are given according to their amount of stock, the lowest sum entitling to a vote being £1000 of stock.

The Court of Directors consists of twenty-four proprietors, their qualification for election being the possession of £2000 of stock. The *directors* choosing a chairman, and deputy-chairman, from their own body. They appoint the governor-general of India, and the governors of the several presidencies, subject only to the approval of the crown. The power of recalling any of these functionaries also rests with the directors. They, moreover, make all subordinate appointments. The territories of the company in India having greatly

increased, a board of control was established by Parliament, in 1784. The president of this board, nominated by the sovereign, may be described as a secretary-of-state for the affairs of India, governing by means of the court of directors, in all political matters.

By an Act of Parliament passed in the reign of Queen Anne, the company had the exclusive privilege of trading to all places eastward of the Cape of Good Hope to the straits of Magalhaens. This privilege continued unaltered until the year 1814, after which certain modifications in reference to trading to the east took place, until, on the renewal of the company's charter in 1833, the right of trading, either to its own territories, or the dominions of any native power in India or China, was taken from the company, throwing the whole completely open to individual enterprise. Since that period the company has been confined to the political management of its vast Indian domains.

The trade of the East India Company, as compared with the commercial dealings of merchants in modern times, was but insignificant, although it must have been highly advantageous. On an average of forty years, from 1733 to 1772, the total cost of goods received was £989,777, and the amount of sales of goods, £2,171,877, shewing a gross profit of 119½ per cent.; but the expences of carrying on the trade were so great, that the whole of the profits were absorbed, and the company even brought considerably into debt. This, no doubt, arose mainly from the political character of the company, rather than from its necessary commercial expenditure. When therefore the company, during the later years of its existence, came into competition with private merchants in commercial enterprise, the utter impossibility of its doing so became so

apparent that government determined to restrict the company from carrying on any commercial operations whatever.

The territorial accessions of the company began in 1757, under Clive, when twenty-four Pergunnahs were taken from the nabob of Bengal, and have continued, at successive periods, until the present time, when nearly the whole of the peninsula of India has become subordinate to the sovereignty of the East India Company. Anomalous as it may appear that an association of individuals, the subjects of a sovereign state, should wage wars, make conquests, and hold possession of territories in foreign countries, independent of the government to which they owe allegiance, yet such is the fact. The sovereignty of the company is exercised by levying assessments upon the cultivators of the soil, which assessment was permanently fixed, during the governorship of the Marquis Cornwallis, in 1793, by placing the *zaminders* in the situation of proprietors, and engaging not to raise the assessments against them. This arrangement having been used as a means of oppressing the *ryots*, or actual cultivators of the land, the company has, of late, become the purchaser of all estates thus held which have been brought to sale, and making its bargain direct with the *ryots*.

The executive government of the company's territories is by a governor and three councillors in each presidency, the governor of Bengal having a general control, as Governor General of India. The company has its courts; and the sovereign of Great Britain her *supreme* courts. The jurisdiction of the latter extending over Europeans generally throughout India, and affecting the native inhabitants only in, and within, a certain distance around the several presidencies. Every regulation made by the local governments, must, to give it validity, be registered in the supreme court.

The company's territories in India, we remark in conclusion, as now administered, must ever remain of paramount importance to the mother country. Trade being now allowed to take its natural course, skill and enterprise will be certain of meeting with success. India produces every article which can conduce to the happiness of man; and, on the other hand, the luxuries of European production being suited to the tastes of the natives of India, a regular and enlarged trade will be continually maintained.

The revenue of India comprised in the three presidencies, was, in 1833-4, £13,680,165; and its charges £13,630,767. The military force of the settlements in India, in 1830, amounted to two hundred and twenty-four thousand four hundred and forty-four men, and its expence to £9,474,481.

METROPOLITAN CEMETERIES.

KENSAL GREEN CEMETERY.

|

HIGHGATE CEMETERY.

How touching are the words of Abraham to the sons of Heth, when, on the death of his beloved wife, he stood up and, as a sojourner amongst them, said—"Give me a possession of a burying-place, that I may bury my dead out of my sight. And *the field*, and *the cave that is therein*, were made sure unto Abraham for a possession of a burying-place by the sons of Heth."—Gen. xxiii. 4, 20. This is the earliest notice given of the safe and simple method of interment practised in the east—a mode of sepulchre which seems to have been extensively pursued in Palestine, Syria, Egypt, and other neighbouring countries, since many sepulchres, excavated from the natural rock, are still



HIGHOLM CHURCH (FROM THE CEMETRY)



WENSLEY GREEN CEMETRY ENTRANCE LODGE

frequently met with by the passing traveller. These *rocky tombs* are generally spacious, being, in fact, family vaults, consisting of niches, six or seven feet deep, cut in the sides of the vault, to receive a single corpse each. Some of the bodies found in such vaults are in stone coffins, but, generally speaking, they are merely wound up in grave-clothes, without any coffin whatever.

The simplicity still employed by the Jews in funerals is worthy of remark, and is thus described by David Levi, in his ceremonies of the Jews:—"As soon as they (the Jews) have purchased *a place* for a burying-ground, usually at some little distance from town, it is laid out in rows, formed by driving stakes into the ground, and placing boards against them; the breadth of these rows being the full length of an adult: in these rows are the dead interred *next to one another*; and, when one row is full, another is opened next to it, in the same order, till the ground is full. In this manner are all their dead buried, *poor or rich*, there being no distinction." When the ground is quite filled, another such piece of ground is purchased.

How early, or by whom, the practice of embalming the dead was introduced, we have no means of knowing; but certain it is, that seventeen centuries before the Christian era, the practice had become common. It, doubtless, did not originate with the Jews, but the Egyptians; and of which their sepulchral remains bear ample testimony. Egypt was alike the cradle of the arts and of superstition. Their religion teaching them that the continuance of the soul in the region of blessedness, was contingent upon the preservation of the body. This superstitious notion will easily explain why so much pains was taken for embalming the dead—the time

employed upon it being from forty to seventy days. Admitting the truth of this belief, than which, however, nothing can be more absurd, there was sufficient reason for the ancient system of embalming.

Among the Greeks and Romans, the practice of burning the bodies of the dead became common. Many proofs of this might be adduced from the works of Homer, and other early writers. About the time of Trajan, this mode of disposing of the bodies of the deceased, unless under peculiar circumstances, was altered, and the practice of interring the dead in the ground, substituted in its place.

In connexion with sepulchral rites, we may just remark, much superstition seems to have prevailed amongst all nations, more or less civilized, in reference to the absurd belief of demonology. Undue importance was attached to the rites of burial, an opinion very generally existing that injury was hereby inflicted upon the departed spirit. This led to a dependance upon the power of witchcraft, and various sacrifices, either for the purpose of holding converse with the departed, propitiating their favour, or conferring some benefit upon their deceased friends. But on this subject we must not enlarge.

The Christians were the first who buried the dead, either within the precincts of their churches, or in grounds immediately contiguous to them, afterwards denominated churchyards. Such a practice might at first have been resorted to as a means of protecting the bodies of the deceased from insult and injury. But when Christianity became the established religion of a country, and *spiritual Babylon*, sure to be all in the wrong, introduced a belief in the miracle-causing power of *relics*, intermural burials, from superstitious motives, were perpetuated.

In proportion as the population encreases, so does this practice become more and more absurd and dangerous. To mingle together the *quick* and the *dead* in populous districts has long been pronounced to be most improper; yet, strange to say, that with such a conviction, we have gone on erecting houses for the living, and digging graves for the dead, in adjoining localities. What can an intelligent foreigner, visiting the metropolis, think of the low state of our civilization, when he finds that our churches, church-yards, and cemeteries, continue to have the dead brought to them for interment, many of which places have been full years ago, and the bodies of those who have died before us, prematurely disturbed for the admission of other corpses.

The crowded state of the present insufficient and improper receptacles for the dead force themselves upon our notice from the east to the west of London, and from its northern to its southern extremity. To particularize would be to give a list of almost every church and chapel in existence. Suffice to enumerate the burial grounds of Shoreditch, Bishopsgate, Aldgate, St. Sepulchre, St. Andrew's, Holborn, Bunhill-fields, New Bunhill-fields, St. Mary's, Newington, Lambeth, St. Margaret's, and St. Ann's, Westminster, St. Giles's in the Fields, Spafields Chapel, St. Marylebone, St. Pancras, and in fact, every district and locality of the metropolis which can be named.

Fifty years have rolled away since a funeral has been suffered to take place within the walls of the city of Paris. Why then should it be allowed to continue in London, and other large towns of the united kingdom? It appears to the plain common sense of persons in the country, that when government saw the necessity of introducing the *Health of*

Towns Bill into parliament, a prohibition against intermural interments would have formed an integral part of the same. But when we notice that London is even excluded from the benefit of the bill just mentioned, and that no notice whatever is made in it of the horrid state of our public London cemeteries, we are ready to sicken at legislation itself, and to suppose that very measure of parliament resolves itself into a mere job, or a mere *struggle* of party.

The subject of *burials in towns* has already been brought many times before parliament; yet always without any thing having been done. There may be some mystery hanging over this important subject; but we trust, for the honour of the clergy, that they are not the opponents to an alteration in the present wretched system.

A noble lord, a member of her majesty's government, has, we believe, lately given a pledge that he will do his best to mature and carry a bill on the subject of burials in towns; and it is to be hoped that his measure will not only prevent trading in the burial of the dead, but also leave the friends of the deceased at liberty to use any form, or no form, at the interment of the dead.

Public Cemeteries, to be thoroughly efficient, should be placed on the same footing as that of 'Pere la Chaise,' near Paris, and subjected to no diocesan or clerical domination. No human *consecration* can be so sacred as that pronounced by the Divine Being himself, "when he saw every thing that he had made," and pronounced it "very good." Neither can national cemeteries require to be laid out in the style of a pleasure garden. Let us take for our model the simplicity of a Jewish burial ground, according to the account given of it in the beginning of this article, *where the rich and the poor alike meet*

together, and where a flat stone alone may record the name, the age, or the character of the departed *one*.

A few words will suffice in explanation of the two cemeteries mentioned at the head of this article. KENSAL GREEN is in the Harrow-road, about a mile and a half from Paddington. It consists of no less than fifty acres of ground, tastefully laid out with gravel-roads and walks of considerable extent: forest trees, ever-greens, shrubs, and flowers, sufficiently demonstrate the floricultural taste of the proprietors. A chapel has been erected for the performance of the burial service according to the rites of the Church of England. Under, and adjoining the chapel, is an extensive range of catacombs, which, with another series of the same, along part of the boundary wall, will contain about twelve thousand coffins. The western side of the ground has been *consecrated*; the opposite side being left *unconsecrated*!

The HIGHGATE or NORTH LONDON CEMETERY, comprising twenty acres of land, lies almost on the brow of the hill near the new church, Highgate. It is a spot of surpassing beauty, and, like its compeer, most tastefully arranged with trees and flowers. We do not wish to be cynical; but really if the teapot and muffin were but introduced, these entrances to *Hades*, might well be taken for two suburban *tea-gardens*. The grounds of both cemeteries are open to the public during the whole day, and are well deserving of a visit.

TEMPLE BAR.

WE have several times in the historical portion of our work adverted to the numerous gates of London, all now happily

removed, excepting that of Temple Bar. Why this massy excrescence should have been left at the extreme western end of London, to perpetuate a nuisance, we know not, unless, indeed, it may have been thought that the sovereigns of England might by chance creep into the city unobserved, unless the creaking of the old crazy gates of Temple Bar should announce their arrival.

On the eastern side of the gate is an inscription, now nearly obliterated, informing us that it was “erected in the year 1670, Sir Samuel Starling, mayor, continued in the year 1671, Sir Richard Ford, Lord Mayor, and finished in the year 1672, Sir George Waterman, lord mayor.” Our James I. was a pedant, although he had that celebrated scholar, George Buchanan, for his tutor; and in like manner some of the citizens of London still remain *Goths*, notwithstanding the flood of light which has poured out upon them. For, is it credible, that although a vote was passed fifty-seven years ago, during the mayoralty of William Picket, Esq., for the removal of Temple Bar, it should still remain? It is still doubtful whether this vote will ever be carried into effect, unless indeed the blast of heaven should first drive *the Bar* as far as Charing Cross, or its own ponderosity bring it to the ground.

KENSINGTON PALACE AND GARDENS.

BRIDGE OVER THE SERPENTINE.

HOUSE OF THE ROYAL HUMANE SOCIETY.

AMONGST the number of buildings near London, few are better known, or more resorted to than the ROYAL PALACE of KENSINGTON. Not that the palace in itself claims any



KENSINGTON PALACE



THE HORSE GUARDS PALACE, CARRENS BARRACKS

particular distinction, being built of brick, and having no pretensions to exterior grandeur. The suites of apartments notwithstanding are noble and extensive, being adorned by many valuable paintings of distinguished artists, English and Flemish. The late Duke of Sussex resided here for many years, and collected a large and valuable library, principally of printed books, which, since his decease, have been dispersed by public sale. This palace formerly belonged to chancellor Finch, afterwards Earl of Nottingham, from whom it was purchased by William III. The gardens are said to have been laid out under the immediate superintendence of Queen Caroline; and for beauty of arrangement are, probably, not surpassed by any in Europe. They form a circuit of about three miles. Within the last few years considerable improvement has been made by underdraining, hereby making the whole dry at every season of the year. The gravel walks, grass plats, and various avenues have been recently completed, with the additional embellishment of fresh plantations. The gardens being open during the whole day, having several entrances, and connected likewise with Hyde Park, form a most agreeable resort for well dressed persons of every grade in society.

Kensington Gardens and Hyde Park are alike supplied with water from the Serpentine, a small stream rising at Bayswater, and falling into the Thames near Ranelagh. It divides also the parish of Chelsea and St. George, Hanover-square. This rivulet furnishing the least supply when it was most wanted, namely, during the summer months, the canal has of late been kept constantly brim full by artificial means from the Thames.

An elegant stone bridge, at the extreme eastern end of Kensington Garden, has been thrown over the stream. The design was made and executed by Messrs. Rennie, and

consists of five water, and two land arches. Its upper surface is level, connecting the northern and southern banks of the canal together by its roadway. The river arches are segments of circles, with archivolts and key stones, surmounted by a block cornice, and a balustrade with equi-distant piers. The land arches are semicircular between the projecting piers, and have also a balustrade over them, the width of the aperture below. The entire design of the bridge is light and elegant, and particularly well adapted for its situation. Its material is a Yorkshire sand-stone, said to be less liable to be acted upon by changes of weather, than even granite itself.

The Serpentine has long been famous as a resort for bathers during the summer months, and for skaters during the frosty months of winter. The thousands who resort hither for the latter purpose on Sundays have occasioned a fearful desecration of a day sacred to religion. Perhaps nothing but a moral influence can effectually suppress this. On the northern bank of the Serpentine, the Royal Humane Society have erected a house for the reception and recovery of persons taken out of the water apparently drowned. Many an individual, who would otherwise have been committed to the grave, has by the instrumentality of this benevolent institution been restored to his family and to society.

THE NATIONAL MERCANTILE LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY.

It is particularly gratifying to us as citizens to record the improvements, however slow, of our native city. Few parts of London required alteration more than the locality at which



BRIDGE OVER THE SERPENTINE



ROYAL HUMANE SOCIETY SERPENTINE

we have now arrived. The completion of the Bank and the Royal Exchange, with the removal of the bank buildings, and the openings made at the entrances into Bartholomew-lane, Broad-street, Threadneedle-street, St. Swithin's Lane, and Princes-street, are improvements which cannot but be highly appreciated. Mansion House-street likewise assumes a new appearance, from the alterations lately made at the corner of Charlotte-row, and the Poultry, where a new and elegant building for the use of the NATIONAL MERCANTILE LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY has just been completed. Messrs. Field, the architects, have made the most of this contracted but conspicuous spot, the structure being well adapted for the place which it occupies, and which though a mere nook, yet, from its peculiar construction, is remarkably well seen. The building consists of three divisions, a centre, and two wings of very unequal size. The entrance is from the central part, under a portico, supported by tuscan pilasters, making the ingress sightly and convenient, without occupying much room. The central front, and the entire basement of the building being in rustic. The offices in the interior, if not very large, are commodious, light, and well ventilated.

The object of the National Mercantile Life Assurance Society being already so well known, it will suffice to say, that the necessity of having some distinct provision for that large, influential, but not always most provident class of men known by the name of commercial travellers, a society was formed, mainly, but not exclusively, for this purpose in 1837. The title of the NATIONAL ENDOWMENT LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY was first assumed, and which, in 1840, was amalgamated with the UNITED MERCANTILE TRAVELLERS' LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY, taking from that time its present

title. The Institution thus concentrated, received the support of that respectable body of men before referred to, and its progress, from such a connexion, has not merely been very great, but as compared with kindred societies, unprecedented. For, according to a report issued in 1846, it appears that the National Mercantile Life Assurance Society, at the end of only seven years, has a *greater income* by more than £100 per cent. than the Equitable Assurance had at the end of twelve years, or that of the Scottish Widow's Fund at the end of eleven years.

According to the report of the directors already mentioned, and certified by the auditors, who profess scrupulously to have examined every *item*, it seems that on the 31st of December, 1845,—

	£	s.	d.
The amount of the Society's liabilities of every description was	203,873	5	9
The amount of its assets and annual income	254,421	3	6½
<hr/>			
Leaving a balance in favour of the Society of	£50,547	17	9½

This state of prosperity authorized the directors, after making an ample reserve to meet every probable claim, to appropriate as a *bonus* to the original shareholders, the sum of 15s. per share. A *bonus*, by way of reduced premium, from 20 to 40 per cent. has been likewise appropriated to policy-holders assured on the scales with profit.

There is another fact mentioned in the report, which must strike every reader as of paramount importance. It has often happened, that families having a claim upon an Assurance Company have been kept in painful suspense by their claim being withheld, or even disputed. To avoid the possibility of such an occurrence, the directors of this society very judiciously consider, that while it becomes a duty to use their



THE NATIONAL FIRE INSURANCE CO. BUILDING, NEW YORK.

utmost precaution by a minute investigation into every proposal submitted to them ; yet that a policy once effected (cases of palpable fraud only excepted) should be regarded in the light of a *bill* payable at a distant date, and which the company are bound to honour, according to the terms of the original contract. Acting upon this principle, it deserves remark, that no claim has ever been disputed, but duly and fully paid.

It is interesting also to learn that although the amount assured from 1837, when the society commenced, to the end of 1845, was nearly £700,000 ; that the total loss sustained by the company, after deducting from the claims, the premium received upon lapsed and surrendered policies, amounted only to the sum of £4,294 17s. 4d.

We will only add, in conclusion, that the business of this year, (1847,) in premiums received upon new policies, as compared with the corresponding months of 1845, shows an increase, in January, of 50 per cent ; February, of 124 ; March, of 266 ; and April, of 420 per cent. Any farther particulars may be had of the actuary and secretary, Jenkin Jones, Esq., at the Society's offices, Poultry, who, will, we feel convinced, promptly respond to every application which may be made to him.

METROPOLITAN RAILWAYS.

THE TERMINUS OF THE SOUTH WESTERN RAILWAY.—*Nine Elms.*

THE TERMINUS OF THE SOUTH EASTERN RAILWAY.—*London Bridge.*

IN a small country like England, when the principal roads were by parliamentary interference put into good order, and

the old stage-waggon system, of three or four miles an hour, broken up by the introduction of mail and other coaches of light weight, with appropriate trappings and good horses, performing journies at the rate of from eight to ten miles an hour, it was thought that the very acmé of perfection as regards travelling was obtained.

And, it must be confessed that such an improved state of things was calculated to excite surprise, when compared with our own early recollections, and still more from the accounts which our fathers during our childhood, recounted in our hearing. The time is still in the remembrance of some old people, when but a single stage, or rather waggon, passed between the City and Paddington in one day. The same was the case with Peckham, and Camberwell. Great difficulty at the same period existed in getting to a distance of eight or ten miles from the metropolis, arising from bad and unsafe roads, together with the unfrequency of public carriages. It is scarcely credible, when we hear that stage-coach passengers, going only to Waltham Abbey, a distance of twelve miles, were accustomed to dine at Tottenham on their way thither; or that it should have required two long days to go to Bristol by the coach, the passengers sleeping one night on the road. Although these statements may be thought scarcely possible, yet at a still earlier period, our roads not being available for wheeled carriages at all, travellers were compelled to transport both themselves and their goods upon horses. Such we know was the actual state of things at no very distant portion of our national history.

Greatly improved as our means of travelling had become, and increasingly multifarious our facilities for locomotion by horses and carriages; yet science was preparing a



SOUTH WESTERN RAILWAY STATION

Nov. 1841



SOUTH EASTERN & SMITHFIELD RAILWAY STATION

Nov. 1841



combined energy of mechanical and chemical power for superseding the use of carriages upon turnpike roads altogether, and hereby forming a new era in locomotion itself. And this mighty revolution was about to be effected not by means of any unknown principles, but simply by a new adaptation of powers with which we had been previously well acquainted, viz., *the use of steam, applied to carriages running upon a railroad.*

To have the means of travelling at the rate of from twenty to a hundred miles an hour, must awaken surprise even in the mind of a man of science, and astonishment in individuals less acquainted with the progress of the arts. But could our honoured forefathers, who were accustomed to visit London only on some special occasion, then on the backs of horses with pack saddles, and having probably, previously arranged their affairs at home, and made their *wills*, see one of our locomotive steam engines approaching them, whistling, puffing, and blowing, as if vomitting flames, and drawing after it a long train of carriages; if, we say, their surprise would allow them to form any opinion at all, it would be expressed in words nearly similar to those once uttered on a very different occasion—“*The gods are come down to us in the likeness of men!*”

Confined as we are within narrow limits, we can only give a very brief sketch of the progress of railway travelling. For a complete history of the steam engine, many modern works may be consulted. Its invention, and subsequent improvements, unlike many other discoveries, may be distinctly traced, proving that it originated from the reflections of an ingenious mind, that its multiform alterations were the result of deep philosophical study, and that it is the most valuable present which the arts of life have ever received from the store-

house of philosophy. The steam of boiling water having great elasticity, is applied to machinery as a motive power, and in the first invented engines, its condensation also. In later engines, particularly those of a locomotive kind, the elasticity of steam only has been employed. The Marquis of Worcester, in 1663, published a small book entitled, *A Century of Inventions*, in which he gives us the first idea of the power of steam, and which was afterwards applied by Captain Savary for raising water from mines. To Newcomen, originally a locksmith, at Dartmouth, Devon, the invention of the steam engine is justly due. He conceived the idea, about the beginning of the last century, of producing a vacuum below the piston rod, after the same had been raised by the force of steam, and which he effected by the injection of cold water to condense the vapour. Such was the origin of that most important and powerful machine called the steam engine, and which was gradually brought to a surprising state of perfection by Watt, Stephenson, and others. The introduction of steam above the piston, and the application of the elastic force of steam under pressure, are due to the indefatigable Watt, of Glasgow, but afterwards of Birmingham. Steam engines, with their subsequent improvements, act either by condensation only, or by pressure and condensation, or by pressure, expansion, and condensation combined; and used with beams and motions, either stationary, without a fly wheel, for pumping up water in mines, &c., or for marine purposes, or with a fly wheel, for working machinery. The progress of these alterations and improvements will bring us to the beginning of the present century.

Some notion of the advantage gained by a steam engine may be formed from the fact that an engine of the ordinary pressure

and construction, as just described, with a cylinder of thirty inches in diameter, will perform the work of forty horses; and, since it may be made to act without intermission, while horses will not work more than eight hours in the day, it will do the work of one hundred and twenty horses; and farther that since the work of a horse is equal to that of five men, it will perform as much as six hundred men could; while its whole expence will only equal about half what the number of horses for which it is substituted would require. At first, steam engines were very limited in their application, but at the period of which we are now speaking, they were used for many purposes where great force was required. Mr. Bolton, of Soho, as one example, applied the steam engine for coining; and by the help of four boys only, the machine was capable of striking thirty thousand pieces of copper money in an hour: the apparatus itself keeping an accurate account of the number struck off.

We must here just notice the application of steam for purposes of navigation. Mr. Miller, of Dalswinton, in connexion with James Taylor, who resided for some time with him as tutor to his younger sons, and William Symington, a friend of Taylor's are believed to be the original projectors of steam navigation. Their first successful experiment was made in October 1788, on Dalswinton lake, when a boat was propelled by a steam engine with a velocity of five miles an hour. Another experiment made during the following year was even more propitious, confirming the practicability of steam navigation. Symington afterwards made a series of experiments on the Forth and Clyde under the patronage of Lord Dundas. Robert Fulton having obtained minute information respecting these experiments, returned to America in 1806, and having built a vessel at New York, she was launched on

the Hudson river about the beginning of 1807. The first trip was eminently successful, every sceptic being converted into a believer before the boat had made the progress of a quarter of a mile. This vessel was named the *Claremont*, of a hundred and sixty tons burden, and which made her first voyage, without any accident, from New York to Albany, a distance of a hundred and forty-five miles, at the rate of five miles an hour. Henry Bell, of Helensburgh, on the Clyde, having likewise witnessed the experiments of Miller and Symington, built a vessel of about twenty-five tons burden, called the *Comet*, which, in 1812, began to run regularly between Glasgow and Helensburgh. In 1815, the first steamer appeared on the Thames called the *Margery*, (although of this there seems to be some doubt,) of seventy tons burden, and which plied between London and Gravesend. Her fares were respectively four shillings and two.

It has been well remarked that Newcomen would acknowledge a marine engine as now manufactured by Maudslay and Field, as a descendant of his atmospheric one; but that in the locomotive engine of Stephenson he would trace no such connexion. The fact being that such an engine is perfectly new, having no other analogy to the ordinary engine excepting that steam is the source of power in both. To render an engine portable it became essential to dispense with all cumbrous apparatus; even the principle of *condensation* itself was denounced. In the locomotive engine, sometimes denominated the high pressure engine, the steam is raised to a pressure sufficient to overcome that of the atmosphere on the opposite side of the piston, the steam also being allowed to act alternately on both sides of the piston, so that the steam having driven the piston up or down is not condensed, but suffered to pass through

an orifice into the open air. Such is the simple principle of the non-condensing engine; and which, without a beam, may be used either stationary, with a fly-wheel for working machinery, or stationary for rotatory engines, or as a locomotive engine without a fly-wheel. Having given this general idea of the steam engine, it would be foreign to our purpose to enter into further detail.

It may at first sight appear extraordinary that, intersected as our country is with roads in all directions, that so vast an outlay should have been made in the construction of railroads. But when the numerous difficulties which steam carriages have to overcome on a common road are considered, the better adaptation of a railway for locomotive purposes will become very apparent. An engine on the common road, must, in the first place, have a provision made for passing over rough, soft, and constantly varying surfaces, and surmounting acclivities of considerable steepness; next, that the machine must be provided with the means of steering with ease and certainty along the sinuosities of a road or street, among other vehicles, and round sharp corners; farther, the weight must be kept within the smallest possible limits, a long train of carriages being inadmissible; and, finally, the necessity of employing machinery which shall occupy but little space, and which also shall not interfere with the accommodation required for passengers and goods. These are *desiderata*, it will be easy to perceive, difficult of accomplishment, combining as they do qualities almost contradictory and irreconcilable.

Notwithstanding these difficulties, experiments have shown the possibility of having steam carriages on a common road. Dr. Robison, while a student in the university of Glasgow, about the year 1759, conceived the idea of

propelling wheel carriages by the agency of steam, and suggested the idea to his friend Watt, who subsequently, in his patent of 1784, describes a plan for a steam carriage; but which was never carried into effect. Mr. Murdoch, a native of Cornwall, was the first in this country who produced a working model of a steam carriage. This happened between the year 1782 and 1792. In 1802, Messrs. Trevithick and Vivian obtained a patent for a steam engine, on the principle of high pressure, which, from its portability, could be applied to land carriages on a common road. Such a vehicle was exhibited in London soon after, and sufficiently demonstrated the practicability of the invention; but owing to the defective state of the roads at that time, the experiments were discontinued, and the machinery adapted to be used upon a railway. The most successful experiments with steam carriages on a common road, were doubtless those of Mr. Hancock, who, in February 1831, commenced running a steam carriage, appropriately denominated the *Infant*, between Stratford and London. This was, it is believed, the first steam carriage that ever plied for hire upon a public road. But notwithstanding so many apparently successful experiments, *common road locomotion* has made such little progress, that every attempt to render steam carriages the means of economical and regular inland communication on ordinary roads, has *totally and absolutely failed*.

From the foregoing statements it will be apparent why resource has been had to railways, notwithstanding the immense outlay required, for the transportation of passengers and goods, to and from distant parts of the country, by the aid of non-condensing locomotive steam carriages.

The use of railways for the easier transport of heavily laden waggons, we have already remarked, is nothing new. Rail-

ways have been employed in the collieries of the north of England, and in the mining districts, for the last two centuries ; but simply forming wheel tracts for carts and waggons. Such railroads were made by pieces of wood, roughly squared, about six feet long, and four to eight inches square, being laid across the intended road, at about two or three feet from each other, and upon these, other pieces, six or seven inches wide, and five deep, were fastened by means of pegs, so as to form two wheel tracks, about four feet apart. It was likewise customary, at any steep ascent, to nail thin plates of malleable iron upon the surface of the wooden rails, to lessen the draught. At other places, which happened to be steep, the carriages were allowed to descend, upon an inclined plane, by their own gravity. The waggons were kept in the proper direction by a *flange*, or projecting rim, on the wheels. Cast iron plates were afterwards employed ; but, from their extreme brittleness, such frequent breakages occurred, that malleable iron rails were again substituted, an improvement which, it is thought, has done more in preparing railroads for becoming the principal highways of the country, than any other.

The invention, in 1820, by Mr. Birkenshaw, of an efficient and cheap method of rolling iron bars suitable for railways, has proved a great *desideratum*, especially since the long wrought rails, formerly confined to the parallel form, can, by a very ingenious adaptation of rolling machinery, be made fish-bellied, when that form is required. It is, however, remarkable that, in the opinion of Sir I. K. Brunel, and others, a smoother and more elastic road, more agreeable to ride upon, cheaper to maintain, and safer for travelling at great velocities, may be obtained by the use of timber, almost according to the original plan, as above described, than by the more

recent and ordinary manner of constructing railroads with stone and iron. The application of iron in such a case being limited to a flat bar or plate, two inches and a half wide, and from half-an-inch to an inch thick, nailed to the beams on the inner edges for the wheels to roll upon. The Great Western, and the London and Croydon Railways are laid in this manner. The Greenwich Railway offers superior comfort from timber bearings being used instead of stone.

In the construction of railways, it has generally been thought that a perfectly straight and level line should be preferred, especially when the extreme *termini* are of equal elevation; or a uniform slope, when one is higher than the other. But, desirable as this may appear, it rarely happens that either can be attained for any great distance: the inclinations, or *gradients*, are therefore so adjusted as to make the nearest practicable approach to a level. The Great Western Railway, in a length of one hundred and seventeen and a half miles, has no steeper *gradient* than six feet six inches per mile, excepting for about four miles; whereas the ordinary *gradient* on the London and Birmingham Railway is sixteen feet per mile. There are, undoubtedly, some circumstances under which advantage may be taken of the powers of gravity and momentum. Indeed, from many experiments recently made, it would appear that considerable ascents and descents may be allowed in the construction of railroads, with safety and advantage.

Moreover, in a railroad of any length, great variety in the nature of the work required must be found, consequent, principally, upon the inequalities of the ground over, or through, which the road is to pass. Hence the necessity, as the case may be, of excavation, tunneling, and embankment, together with the formation of viaducts, bridges, and other erections.

Tunnels are, at once, most expensive to proprietors, and least agreeable to travellers. In all the more recently designed railways, therefore, they have been most judiciously avoided where it was practicable. Deep cuttings, and excavations of considerable extent, must be of frequent occurrence, often superseding the necessity of a tunnel. An extensive excavation through the Cowran Hills, on the Newcastle and Carlisle *line* of road, is, in some parts, more than one hundred feet deep. At Bilsworth, on the London and Birmingham *line*, the railway is at a depth of about sixty feet, the upper portion of which is rock, the lower consisting of a less solid material. In this case, the rock is supported by an under-setting of masonry, instead of making an excavation of the slope required by the lower strata.

Embankments, or artificial ridges of earth, formed to support a railway when on a higher level than the natural surface of the ground, are often of gigantic dimensions. The quantity of earth removed, in many cases, averaging from one hundred thousand to one hundred and fifty thousand cubic yards per mile. Our readers will form some idea of this fact when they are informed that the earth and stones removed on the London and Birmingham line alone, amounted to sixteen million cubic yards, which would form a belt, three feet wide and one high, long enough to encompass the equatorial circumference of the earth.

The quantity of masonry and brickwork, in a railway of any extent, is always considerable. The number of bridges required, taking the mean of one hundred railways, averages two and a half per mile. To this must be added arching of almost every kind, viaducts, drains, and walls, with station-houses and other buildings.

The expence incurred in making a railway must, therefore, in itself, necessarily be very great. Twenty thousand pounds sterling per mile is not more than the average cost. In many special cases it has far exceeded this estimate. Among the items of expenditure, must not be overlooked that of procuring an Act of Parliament for the same. The formation of railways involving the interests of so many, will, of course, require the aid of legislation; and the British Parliament has done wisely in making numerous and stringent preparatory regulations on this subject. The number of crude and ill-judged speculations of 1835-7, inclusive, seemed to require this. Still legitimate enterprise should not be injuriously shackled, or expences incurred out of all reasonable bounds. A Railway Act embracing, as it does, numerous subjects, must be of some extent; yet, probably, none but a lawyer would imagine that *two hundred folio pages* were necessary for such a purpose. Natives of Great Britain ought to *blush*, while foreigners *stare*, at the announcement, that the expence of the Act of Parliament obtained for the London and Birmingham Railway Company amounted to £72,000; that of the Great Western, to £88,000; and that of the London and Brighton Company, to *a thousand pounds a day, for about fifty days!*

The whole length of the various railways already sanctioned by parliament, exceeds three thousand miles in length, about half that number being already in operation, and with an invested capital of, at least, £60,000,000.

The success attendant upon such speculations must vary; but no doubt can exist that the aggregate amount of travelling by railways has greatly increased, producing receipts truly surprising. The gross receipts of the London and Birmingham Railway, in connexion with branches to Liverpool, Man-

chester, Preston, and Aylesbury, were, during the year 1840 £1,467,562 : 19s. : 8d.

The numerous railroads which now intersect the country may be regarded as so many radii, meeting in London as their common centre. The Great Western Railway, including the Gloucester, Oxford, and South Devon branches, has its *terminus* at Paddington. At the *terminus* of the London and Birmingham, or North Western Railway, Euston Square, two sections centre, the southern and the northern ; the southern, including the Northampton, Peterborough, Warwick, Leamington, Aylesbury, and Bedford branches ; the northern section, comprising the Chester, Crewe, Macclesfield, Bolton, and Kenyon branches. The South Western, or Southampton Railway, has its *terminus* at Nine Elms, Vauxhall, including the Guildford, Gosport, and Richmond branches. The *termini* of the Croydon, Brighton, and Dover, or the South Eastern Railways, including the Greenwich, Ramsgate, Tunbridge Wells, Maidstone, Margate, Chichester, and Hastings branches, are at Tooley Street, London Bridge. The Dover Railway *terminus*, strictly speaking, is in the Kent Road. The Blackwall Railway *terminus* is in Fenchurch Street, City. The engines employed on this line of road are stationary, the carriages being drawn by means of ropes. The Eastern Counties and Eastern Union Railways, including the Cambridge line, and the Hertford, Peterborough, and Stamford branches, have their *termini* in Shoreditch. Numerous public carriages are constantly in attendance on the arrival of the trains ; and proceed from every part of the metropolis for the purpose of conveying passengers to the various railway *termini*.

Great as the convenience of railway travelling undoubtedly is, there is still great room for further improvement. When, for

example, it is recollected that passengers are not unfrequently as long in getting from the railway station to their respective places of abode, as the time which the whole journey by the railway occupied, it will be confessed that some alteration is necessary. The time, possibly, is not far distant when the *terminus* of each railway will come to some common point, and which should be in the *very centre* of the metropolis itself.

THE LONDON ARCADES.

THE BURLINGTON ARCADE, PICCADILLY.

THE LOWTHER ARCADE, WEST STRAND.

AMONGST the novelties of London may be ranked the Burlington Arcade, Piccadilly, with its twin sister the Lowther Arcade, West Strand. The former of these was built from the design of Samuel Ware, Esq., well known as the author of a scientific work on vaults and bridges. It is a covered avenue lighted, during the day, from openings in the roof, and, at night, by gas, presenting a very brilliant appearance. The arcade is upwards of two hundred yards in length, fitted up on each side in good taste with shops, appropriated chiefly for the sale of books, prints, jewellery, millinery, artificial *bouquets*, and other articles of fashionable demand. Porters walk to and fro for the maintenance of good order. It forms a pleasant promenade, especially in bad weather. An entrance is made into the western bazaar from about the centre of the arcade.

The Lowther Arcade forms an elegant avenue to Adelaide Street, at the back of St. Martin's church. It is not so long as its compeer the *Burlington* but is wider and higher, having





ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL



ST SAVIOURS SOUTHWARK

two stories over the shops. It is moreover well ventilated. A large proportion of the shops are *devoted* to the sale of toys and trinkets.

THE CHURCHES OF THE METROPOLIS.

ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL.
 ST. SAVIOUR'S.—*Southwark*.
 ST. MARY'S.—*Whitechapel*.
 ST. SWITHIN'S CHURCH.—*Cannon-street*.
 ST. OLAVE'S.—*Tooley-street*.
 ST. DIONIS BACKCHURCH.
 ST. MICHAEL'S.—*Chester Square, Pimlico*.
 ST. KATHERINE'S.—*Regent's Park*.
 ST. SEPULCHRE'S.—*Old Bailey*.

THE TEMPLE CHURCH.
 WESTMINSTER ABBEY.
 ST. BOTOLPH'S.—*Bishopsgate-street*.
 ST. GILES.—*Cripplegate*.
 ST. MICHAEL'S.—*Queenhithe*.
 ALLHALLOWS.—*Queenhithe*.
 ST. PAUL'S.—*Covent Garden*.
 ST. JOHN'S.—*Westminster*.
 ST. JOHN'S.—*Holloway*.
 HIGHGATE CHURCH.

UPON the abstract question of the expediency of a national church establishment it would be foreign to our purpose to enter. We must, notwithstanding, be excused in saying, that there is something in the *ideal* of a national church which must strike every mind as that which is both delightful and desirable. To have a whole country divided into small sections, with a church of moderate size, erected for the public worship of God by the inhabitants of each section, having a pious and learned clergyman, of their own choice, resident amongst them, to conduct the public services of the sanctuary, to visit the sick and the dying, to superintend the education of the poor, and to administer relief to the temporal wants of his parishioners. This, we repeat, presents a picture with which every mind must be delighted. And, if this be added, what any well regu

lated church system must require, a diocesan or presbytery, to superintend a certain number of parishes within a district, little else could be desired. Parish ministers, with such a state of things, would be devoted to the duties of their holy vocation, whilst every parishioner, of whatever *grade*, would look up to the pastor, as to a friend, for counsel and guidance. The bishop or presbyter watching over the conduct of each minister within the district, hearing complaints, and preventing, or rectifying any abuse or innovation which might chance to arise. The good which such a state of things must produce would be of incalculable extent. Yet such, according to the New Testament, was the state of the primitive church, when Christian ministers and Christian people were “of one heart, and of one mind, striving together for the faith of the gospel.”

Should the question be asked, where is such a church to be found? We fear the answer must be—no where! Certainly not in the corrupt Church of Rome, or in the half-reformed Church of England, as by law established. Still there is no reason why our national church may not, by legislative means be restored to a state of primitive Christianity. Only let the abuses which were so unhappily permitted to remain at the time of the reformation be corrected, together with those which have since been accumulating, and an approximation, at least, to the purity of apostolic times may be hoped for. But whilst the orthodox articles of our church are to be vitiated by popish-like canons, and a contradictory rubric; while the spirituality of our liturgy continues to be defiled by the introduction of unmeaning and superstitious ceremonies; while the introduction of pious, learned, and faithful ministers are restrained from entering the church at all, or having entered it, are over-



ST BOTOLPH, BISHOPSGATE



ST MARY WHITECHAPEL



WHARFEGATE CHURCH



ST DENNIS BACKCHURCH.

Leeds Church 21

whelmed by the number of clergymen holding benefices, which patronage alone can confer, however unable or unwilling such individuals may be for their sacred office, or without reference being made to the wishes of the people in the choice of a pastor; while the ample funds of the established church are to be spent by lay-appropriators, pluralists, non-residents, and such like, to the great injury of curates, or subordinate ministers; while abuses, such as these, and others which might be enumerated, are suffered to remain, the clergy, as a body of men, will continue to be disliked and despised, because their appropriate work is so inefficiently fulfilled. And this lamentable state of things continues, not from any insubordination in the people, as good Mr. Bickersteth, in his address on the late fast day, would have us believe; but because the clergy have rendered themselves unworthy of being followed.

There are in the Church of England, we rejoice to know, many ministers of a different spirit, who would be an ornament to any church; but the foregoing lamentable statement is not hereby neutralized. Whether an ecclesiastical commission, or the appointment of new bishops, either for newly made sees, at home or abroad, or any other partial measure can do good, let others determine; our impression is, that nothing short of a thorough reform in our church will be of any use to the subjects of Great Britain, or even to the great body of the clergy themselves.

The history of the Church of England, at and since the period of the reformation, is an unhappy one. There are, however, some representations of our English reformation made by those who would, we suppose, call themselves *high churchmen*, which are so much opposed to the page of history that the authors of them must

be pronounced lying prophets. Such views are to be found in the Oxford tracts, Palmer's *Origines*, and Dr. Hook's Sermon, preached before the Queen in 1838. An epitome of these may be thus briefly given :—" *That in the sixteenth century, the Church of England was reformed, not by lay authority, but by a reformation of herself ; that her bishops then released themselves from the uncanonical and usurped foreign jurisdiction of the pope, in which the inferior clergy concurred ;—that the different regulations enjoined as to the omission or insertion of certain articles in the creeds and liturgy were acquiesced in by the whole nation—the clergy and the laity,—the convocation and the parliament ;—that for eleven years after the accession of Elizabeth, the Romanists knelt at the altars, and joined in the liturgy of the self-reformed Church of England ;—that the separation of the Romanists from the original true reformed Church of England is to be dated from the year 1572, when Pius V. excommunicated Queen Elizabeth ;—that the schism was carried on by the missionaries who came from foreign parts, and has been since perpetuated by a certain number of the followers of the pope ;—and that the Protestant bishops of the three kingdoms, at the present day, are the undoubted representatives, by episcopal succession, of the bishops of the Celtic and Anglo-saxon churches.*" These assertions we repeat are untrue.

The facts, we think, may be told in very few words. The minds of the people of England had ever since the times of Wickliff been turned to matters of religion, a great desire existing for a reformation in the church. This, from time to time, became so strong, that the government experienced considerable difficulty in its suppression. The outbreak, under Lord Cobham, has already been noticed in the historical part



ST. MICHAEL'S QUEENH THE.



ALL HALLOWS CH. MARKET ST.



ST. GILES'S TAVERN ST.



ST. PAUL'S CH. AND LONDON STONE

View to S. 1701



of our work. Luther, a native of Isleben, began to speak freely against the errors of the Romish church, when the pontiff, Leo X. hurled the thunder of his anathema at him, by sending a *bull*, charging him with heresy, and threatening excommunication within sixty days. Luther now thought it high time to protect himself. He therefore appealed from the pontiff to a general council, and then left the communion of a corrupt and superstitious church by a voluntary retreat. On the 10th of December, 1520, in the presence of an immense multitude, he committed the *bull* which had been published to the flames, together with the papal decretals and canons. This daring act of the reformer seemed to shake the papacy to its centre, producing a strong feeling in every country of Europe.

At this time, Henry VIII. was the reigning sovereign of England, and who having been educated in a strict attachment to the church of Rome, wrote a book in Latin against the principles of Luther, sending a copy of it to the Roman pontiff, who duly appreciating such a performance from so august a personage, conferred on Henry the title of *defender of the faith*, an appellation retained by the sovereigns of England to the present time. Luther published a reply, in which, regardless of the dignity of his antagonist, he treated the monarch with more than his accustomed acrimony; and victory in the dispute was assigned to the reformer.

From the present disposition of the king, nothing seemed more unlikely than that he should, in any way, assist in promoting the reformation. But his pride and his lust, at length brought about that separation, from which his reason and his prejudices had revolted. He became anxious to divorce his wife, Queen Catherine, under the specious pretext that his conscience was ill at ease, for having married his brother's widow.

A more substantial reason for such a step was, however, to be found in the king's attachment to Anne Boleyn, a lady possessing considerable charms. Application was made to the pontiff; but the process being more tedious than the impatience of kingly lust, Henry determined, at all events to marry, and to dissolve his connexion with the see of Rome. His chancellor, the celebrated Wolsey, was disgraced on the iniquitous pretext of having, contrary to a statute of Richard II. known as the statute of *provisors*, procured bulls from Rome, particularly one investing himself with the legatine power. The entire dismemberment of England from Rome soon followed. It was pretended that all the clergy had violated the same statute; and, in 1532, an acknowledgment was extorted from the convocation, besides the exaction of a fine, that the king was the *protector and the supreme head of the church and clergy of England*. The parliament, which assembled in 1534, passed an act, conferring on the king the title of the only supreme head, on earth, of the Church of England, and acknowledged his inherent power to visit and repress, to redress, reform, order, correct, restrain, or amend, all errors, heresies, abuses, offences, contempts, and enormities, which fell under any spiritual authority or jurisdiction. Bishops were to be appointed by a *cong   d' elire* from the crown. Convocations to be assembled by the king's authority only; and no new canons to be made without his consent. In compliance with this law, the bishops took out new commissions from the crown, in which all their spiritual and episcopal authority was expressly affirmed to be derived ultimately from the civil magistrate, and to be entirely dependant on his good pleasure. Such was the *origin*, and such the fundamental principle of the Church of England, and such it continues to be.

That Dr. Thomas Cranmer, who was introduced to the king in 1528, and afterwards succeeded Archbishop Warham in the see of Canterbury, was concerned in effecting these changes is undoubted. Cranmer has received his full meed of praise for the part which he took in the reformation of the church. His position, as regards his capricious master was, it must be confessed, extremely difficult. But that he is justly chargeable with being a pander to the king's vices, maintaining opinions contrary to known facts, taking oaths of celibacy and obedience to the pope, with mental reservation to keep neither, being actually married at the very time ; pronouncing at one time Henry's marriage with Anne Boleyn legal, and at another void ; these, and other acts, have justly exposed Cranmer to severe censure. He was naturally timid and vacillating ; although in many things he greatly promoted *the new doctrines*. With the consent of the convocation, (1534), he completed and printed a translation of the Bible. He also published the King's Primer, a book containing doctrines bordering upon Protestantism, and likewise a compilation called the Bishop's Book, inculcating the same.

Notwithstanding the opposition of Cranmer, the *six articles* were published in 1539, and for which, with the personal interference of the king, the parliament had passed an act, known amongst Protestants by the name of the *bloody statute*, and which set forth,—1. That in the sacrament there was no substance of bread and wine, but only the natural body and blood of Christ : 2. That Christ was entirely in each kind, and so communion in both was not necessary : 3. That priests by the law of God, ought not to marry : 4. That vows of chastity taken after the age of twenty-one ought to be kept : 5. That private masses were lawful and useful : 6. That auricular confession

was necessary, and ought to be retained. For the breach of these doctrines the severest temporal punishments were annexed.

Yet the public services of the church, until 1544, remained unchanged, the mass being celebrated as heretofore in the Latin language; and the images, vestments, and other *frifpery* of Romanism, continued. Henry was neither *papist* or *protestant*; and hence the abettors of the old religion, and of the new learning, were alike exposed to danger: the former for denying the king's supremacy, the latter for disbelieving the doctrines of the papacy. To these harsh and terrific measures Cranmer suffered himself to be a guilty party.

The extraordinary state of religion in England at this time, and of the king's mind also, may be learned from the following memorable fact: The continental reformers had held a meeting, first at Smalcald, and afterwards at Francfort, for the purpose of forming a solemn alliance and confederation in defence of their religion. To this *diet* the princes favouring a reformation were invited, and amongst others the King of England; the stipulations were to this effect;—"That the king should encourage, promote, and maintain the true doctrine of Christ, as it was contained in the confession of Augsbuurg, and defend the same at the next general council;—that he should not agree to any council summoned by the bishop of Rome, but protest against it, and neither submit to its decrees, nor suffer them to be respected in his dominions;—that he should never allow the Roman pontiff to have any pre-eminence or jurisdiction in his dominions;—that he should advance 100,000 crowns for the use of the confederacy, and double that sum if it became necessary." To these proposals the king replied,—“that he would maintain and promote the true doctrine of Christ; but as the true ground of

that doctrine lay only in the holy scriptures, he would not accept, at any one's hand, what should be his faith, or that of his kingdom, and therefore desired that they would send over learned men to confer with him, in order to promote a religious union between him and the confederate princes. He, moreover, thought that the regulation of the ceremonial part of religion, ought to be left to the choice of each sovereign for his own dominions." This negotiation, as might have been expected, came to nothing; the German princes being sensible that they could not succeed with Henry unless they would allow him an absolute dictatorship in matters of religion.

Such was the wretched state of the church at Henry's death, which happened in 1547. Edward VI., his son, then only nine years of age, succeeded him. An extraordinary statute had passed the year after the birth of this prince, in which it was enacted, "That if the king's heirs should reign before they were of age, the proclamations set out by the privy council should have the like force in law as an act of parliament." Under this act the removal of abuses in the church immediately commenced. The bishops were required to renew their commissions, and to hold their sees only during the king's pleasure, and to perform the episcopal function as his delegates. The next step towards a purer worship in the church took place at the beginning of the second year of the king's reign, when the carrying of candles on Candlemas-day, ashes on Ash Wednesday, and palm on Palm Sunday, were forbidden. A general order soon followed for the removal of *all images* out of the churches.

Soon after, the Book of Common Prayer was thoroughly revised, being, with a few exceptions, the same which is used in the church at the present time. A service for the ordination

of ministers was likewise published; and an order for the removal of *altars*, moveable tables being placed in their room: the reason alleged for this, was that both the *thing* and the *name* encouraged the belief of expiatory sacrifice, a doctrine now repudiated. The articles of religion, nearly as they now exist, were compiled. Farther improvements were also made in the Book of Common Prayer, especially the scriptural confession of sin at the commencement of the service. The canons were in active preparation;—when the young king died. We may just add, that during this reign the best understanding existed between the Church in England and the reformed churches abroad; Martyn and Bucer having for some time resided in England, the one at Oxford, the other at Cambridge. The absurd notion of *apostolical succession*, or the invalidity of ordination not episcopal, forming at this period, no part of the belief of our church. Had it pleased God to have spared the young king's life a few years longer, the probability is, that those errors and abuses which still remained in the church, would have been removed. Short as Edward's reign was, it may, notwithstanding, be pronounced *the golden age of the reformed Church of England*:—purity of doctrine, and simplicity of worship, having been to a great extent restored.

A return to the *harlotry* of spiritual *Babylon*, on the accession of Mary was a lamentable event for the reformed religion; the Church of England being again delivered over to the *tender mercies* of Rome. The history of Mary's reign need not be repeated.

Neither, unhappily, has our national church much to boast of during the long reign of Elizabeth. She had indeed those about her when she began to reign, who could have

guided her into a purer path ;—such men as Sandys, Grindall, Pilkington, Jewell, Horn, Parkhurst, Bentham and others, the worthy successors of Hooper and Coverdale, of Ridley and Latimer, had they not been restrained, to use the words of a virulent writer in the *British Critic*, by the “ *strong Tudor arm*” of the virgin queen. Elizabeth was always in her heart a papist,—the veriest bigot to the *pomps* of the *old religion* ; and but for the love of supremacy, and the spoils of the church, would have been so overtly as a sovereign. She hated reform, retaining the altar, the crucifix, and the candles, contrary to law, in her own chapel. And while, from political motives, she became the patroness of Protestants abroad, she ruled her Protestant subjects at home with a rod of iron.

A convocation was held in London in 1562, confirming the articles of the church, as expressed in the Book of Common Prayer. An act of uniformity was afterwards passed, when pains and penalties were inflicted upon those who absented themselves from the public services of the church. The clergy of other denominations being put upon a level with rogues and felons. The great error of the times was, that *all* were presumed to be, and treated as, members of the established church ; the popish practices of fines and imprisonments being employed against all seceders, instead of forbearance and charity. No thanks to the church that such unrighteous laws no longer disgrace our statute book ! “ So absolute,” says Hume, “ was the authority of the crown, that the precious spark of liberty had been kindled, and was preserved by the Puritans alone ; and it was to this sect that the English owe the whole freedom of their constitution.”

Hopes were entertained that Elizabeth’s successor would have introduced some change for the better. Far from this

being the case, England is mainly indebted to him for raising those storms, which at a later period laid both church and state in one common ruin. The canons of 1603, which have occasioned so much heart-burning in our times, are due to James I.; but which having never received the sanction of parliament, are certainly not binding upon the laity, probably not even upon the clergy. These canons were passed by the first convocation, which met after the king's accession. They were drawn up by the fiery Bancroft, Bishop of London, a divine of rough temper, a perfect creature of prerogative, and a declared enemy of the civil and religious liberties of his country; he also presided at this convocation. The book of canons contains *one hundred and forty-two articles*, partly collected from the episcopal and synodical acts of Edward VI. and Elizabeth, and present a sad specimen of the spirit of the church at that time. They are written in the true *anathema* style, would disgrace even the *Vatican* itself, and have been a scandal to our Protestant Church from that time to the present. The canons, notwithstanding, well merit a perusal. Our limits forbidding enlargement, we select one only as a specimen.—*Canon 10.* “*Whoever shall affirm that such ministers as refuse to subscribe to the form and number of God's worship in the Church of England, and their adherents, may truly take to themselves the name of another church not established by law, and shall publish that their pretended church has groaned under the burden of certain grievances, imposed on them by the Church of England, let them be excommunicated, ipso facto, and not restored, &c.*”

Such is a faithful portraiture of our half-reformed national Church of England, drawn in 1603; and such we most sincerely lament to add she remains in 1847. Yet would we



CHURCH OF ST. GEORGE
 (View from the West)



CHURCH OF ST. GEORGE
 (View from the East)

pray for the peace of our *spiritual Jerusalem*, (Psalm 122), and with all her faults would love her still!

In closing our remarks, we must just notice the extraordinary position of other sections of the church, presumed to be in connexion with that of England. About the year 1670, the settlers in Virginia, then a colony of Great Britain, being desirous of having a clerical establishment in connexion with the Church of England, readily and most properly, had their request granted, and a bishop was accordingly consecrated and sent out. The colonists had previously perceived that every favour coming from England was sure to be clogged with something offensive, and the Anglo-American Church, with surprise, found that a *rider* was annexed to the charter of incorporation, confining the functions of their ministers strictly to America; so that an ordained clergyman coming to England, became in fact a layman: *pulpit* and *desk* being alike barred against him.

But the anomalies of the Anglican Church are still more singular in connexion with the Scottish Episcopal Church. This branch of episcopacy began on the accession of William III. in 1689, forming a *scion* of that schism which arose from the *non-juring* bishops of England. The Scottish Episcopal Church therefore, at its origin, was by English law, pronounced to consist of a *knot of traitors*, in politics, and of *schismatics*, in religion; and in the true spirit of Church intolerance, the *non-jurors* in Scotland were not permitted to hold any meetings whatever for religious worship. In the year 1788, however, on the death of the pretender, the Scottish Episcopalians professed their willingness to pray for the present reigning family. This was a reason why the law should relax; and the free exercise of the clerical duties of

their ministers should have followed had they conformed to the whole ritual of the church, as the English clergy were obliged to do, according to the act of uniformity. But it is notorious, that the episcopal church in Scotland has a *communion* and *confirmation service* of her own, in which prayers and ceremonies are introduced contrary to the rites of the Anglican church. The Scottish Episcopalians, moreover, have a *code of canons* differing from, and even more absurd than those of England. They were last printed in 1838, having been first revised, amended, and enacted by an ecclesiastical synod, holden for that purpose. In itself there may be no objection to all this; but why the Scottish clergy thus seceding should be admitted for two successive Sundays, but not for more, into the pulpits of a church, requiring uniformity, is what we cannot understand.

But this is not all. Formerly, the congregations of English Episcopalians, dwelling in Scotland, were regarded virtually as under the episcopate of London, and occasionally visited by the bishop for spiritual purposes. But since the Scottish bishops have been permitted to assume some authority, no anglican bishop has made a visitation to English congregations located in Scotland. On the contrary, a recommendation has been given to the English clergy, by the present Bishop of London, in ignorance, we hope, of the facts of the case, to submit to the *ghostly* authority of the Scottish bishops.

The result has been most disastrous. No confirmation in the English episcopal congregations has taken place for some years past, the young people having been kept either from full communion with the church, or admitted irregularly. Most, if not all, of the clergymen ordained in England, but serving churches in Scotland, having been obliged, from conscientious

motives, formally to retire from the Scottish Episcopal Church, and have been *anathematized* for so doing. We do not hesitate most advisedly to say, that the *Scottish Episcopal Church is the very cradle of Tractarianism*; and that it is the duty of every English clergyman to have no connexion with her.

We regret that we cannot enlarge. For the amusement, however, if not for the edification of our readers, we publish a copy of what we sincerely trust will never appear again, a *protestant bull*. Its author is *William Skinner, Doctor in Divinity, Bishop of Aberdeen, and Primus of the Episcopal Church in Scotland*. It is extracted from the minutes of the synod of the diocese of Aberdeen, held the 9th and 10th of August, 1843. The gentleman herein *denounced, is a clergyman of the Church of England, in full orders, a graduate of the University of Oxford, and under no ecclesiastical censure*.

“IN THE NAME OF GOD. AMEN. Whereas, the Reverend Sir William Dunbar, late minister of St. Paul’s Chapel, Aberdeen, and a presbyter of this diocese, received by letters dismissory from the Lord Bishop of London, forgetting his duty as a *priest of the Catholic Church*, did, on the twelfth day of May last, in a letter addressed *to us*, William Skinner, Doctor in Divinity, Bishop of Aberdeen, wilfully renounce his *canonical obedience to us*, his proper ordinary, and *withdrew himself*, as *he pretended*, from the jurisdiction of the Scottish Episcopal Church; and notwithstanding our *earnest and affectionate* remonstrances repeatedly addressed to him, did *obstinately* persist in that, his most *undutiful and wicked act*, contrary to his ordination vows, and his solemn promise of canonical obedience, whereby the said Sir William Dunbar hath violated every principle of duty which the laws of *the Catholic Church* have

recognised as binding on her priests, and hath placed himself in a state of *open schism*, and whereas the said Sir William Dunbar hath, moreover, continued to *officiate in defiance of our authority*; therefore, We, WILLIAM SKINNER, DOCTOR IN DIVINITY, BISHOP OF ABERDEEN, AFORESAID, SITTING WITH OUR CLERGY IN SYNOD, THIS TENTH DAY OF AUGUST, IN THE YEAR OF OUR LORD, ONE THOUSAND EIGHT HUNDRED AND FORTY-THREE, AND ACTING UNDER THE PROVISIONS OF CANON XLI. DO DECLARE THAT THE SAID SIR WILLIAM DUNBAR HATH CEASED TO BE A PRESBYTER OF THIS CHURCH, AND THAT ALL HIS MINISTERIAL ACTS ARE WITHOUT AUTHORITY, AS BEING PERFORMED APART FROM CHRIST'S MYSTICAL BODY, WHEREIN THE ONE SPIRIT IS; AND WE DO MOST EARNESTLY AND SOLEMNLY WARN ALL FAITHFUL PEOPLE TO AVOID ALL COMMUNION WITH THE SAID SIR WILLIAM DUNBAR, IN PRAYERS AND SACRAMENTS, OR IN ANY WAY GIVING COUNTENANCE TO HIM IN HIS PRESENT IRREGULAR AND SINFUL COURSE, LEST THEY BE PARTAKERS WITH HIM IN HIS SIN, AND THEREBY EXPOSE THEMSELVES TO THE THREATENING DENOUNCED AGAINST THOSE WHO CAUSE DIVISIONS IN THE CHURCH; FROM WHICH DANGER WE MOST HEARTILY PRAY THAT GOD OF HIS GREAT MERCY WOULD KEEP ALL THE FAITHFUL PEOPLE COMMITTED TO OUR CHARGE, THROUGH JESUS CHRIST OUR LORD. AMEN."

We have been accustomed to consider this extraordinary document very seriously, believing as we do, that it would be a libel upon the bishops of England and Ireland to suppose that there is one amongst them who would have had either the *imprudence*, or the *impudence*, to have published such a *farrago of nonsense*. Travellers coming from the north, however, give a different version, assuring us that Bishop Skinner, better





MADISON CHURCH



NEW CHURCH,
HIGHLAND FREE CHURCH

known in his diocese by the appellation of *We William*, is so *nice a fellow*, that the publication of this *bull was a mere Scotch show off*, not intended even to hurt a *flea*; and furthermore, that *the Primus* would not have exposed himself to the ridicule of his Presbyterian townsmen, in letting off such a *squib*, unless he had been well supplied with *brimstone*, by Mrs. Skinner, and one Patrick Cheyne, a learned canonist.

Be it so;—still the English episcopal congregations, and their ministers, in Scotland, must be protected; and if the bishops of our church cannot, or will not, do this, the sooner, in our humble judgment, the legislature of the country is applied to the better. A reformed House of Commons would, we believe, promptly put a hook into the nose of these *ghostly leviathans*, and thereby prevent the recurrence of such outrages for the future.

Of the noble, but useless edifice, called the CATHEDRAL OF SAINT PAUL, our space will permit us to say but little. It is the largest Protestant church ever built, and standing on rising ground, and in the centre of London properly so called, presents a most majestic appearance. It is also remarkable that this immense church was built, in thirty-five years, under one architect, Sir Christopher Wren, and during the life of one bishop, Dr. Compton. Its length within the walls, from east to west, is five hundred feet; from north to south, two hundred and eighty-six feet; the height, four hundred and four feet; and its entire cost, £1,500,000 sterling. Service is performed in the chapel every morning, Sundays excepted, at seven o'clock, during the summer, and eight o'clock in winter. The choral service is celebrated daily, at a quarter before ten A.M., and a quarter past three P.M. Sermons are preached

on Sundays, and saint days, and every Wednesday and Friday, during Lent.

Saint Paul's cathedral is, without doubt, the master-piece of its illustrious architect, presenting a good specimen of Italian architecture. Its form is that of a Latin cross, widened at the west end by projections; and where the north and south transept cross the naves are similar projections, forming buttresses to the cupola; each end of the transept likewise terminating by a beautiful semicircular portico. The intersection of the body of the cathedral, by the transepts, is formed into a grand and spacious area. The end of the choir terminates by a semicircular recess, in which stands the communion table. The church consists of a double tier of stories without, though only of one within; this is pronounced, by competent judges, to be the greatest defect in the building. The pillars of the lower stories are of the Corinthian order, those of the upper, of the Composite. The cupola is justly admired for its beauty and science. Above it is a lofty lantern, surmounted by a magnificent ball and cross, richly gilt. The principal front looks westward, having a magnificent portico, supporting a triangular pediment, the entablature of which represents, in low relief, the conversion of Saint Paul. The angles are surmounted by bell towers, of light, chaste, and uniform character.

Visitors may see all the *lions* of this splendid church for the sum of 4s. 4d. each person. A short extract from Lien Chi Altangi's letter to Fum Hoam, will form no inappropriate close. "I marched up," says the writer, "without farther ceremony, and was going to enter, when a person, who held the gate in his hand, told me I must pay first. I was surprised at such a demand, and asked the man, '*whether the people of England kept a show? whether the paltry sum he*



ST PAULS, COVENT GARDEN



ST SEPULCHRE



ST. JOHN'S WESTMINSTER



ST. MARTIN'S LONDON



demanded was not a national reproach? whether it was not more to the honour of the country to let their magnificence, or their antiquities be openly seen, than thus meanly to tax a curiosity which tended to their own honour?"—(Citizen of the World, letter 13.)

THE ABBEY CHURCH OF ST. PETER'S, Westminster, was begun by Henry III., but not completed until the time of Sir Christopher Wren. It is built in a most splendid style of Gothic architecture, many parts of which having gone to decay, have been repaired, or restored, within the last few years. This vast mausoleum—the final earthly resting-place of the sovereigns, nobles, statesmen, warriors, divines, and *literati* of England, cannot be visited without intense interest. The numerous chapels, and aisles, filled with historical *memoranda* of the past, may be viewed every week-day, from nine till six, excepting during the time of public service. The charge to each person is 6d. The dimensions of this stupendous building are as follow:—extreme length, from east to west, five hundred and thirty feet; transept, from north to south, two hundred and fourteen feet; width, at the west front, one hundred-and-nineteen feet; height, to ridge of roof, one hundred and forty-one feet; height of the two west towers, each, two hundred and twenty-five feet; and, height of the central tower, one hundred and fifty-three feet.

Many of the older churches having already been noticed in the historical part of our work, we forbear any further remarks, excepting to express our surprise that the authorities of St. Michael's, Pimlico, should have allowed such a cumbrous and unsightly church to have been erected within their district. The interior is even worse than the exterior, being imperfectly ventilated, having almost as many draughts as there are points

in the compass, and the various parts of the church so badly arranged, that even the mellifluous voice of the Rev. Mr. Harrison, the present incumbent, cannot be heard.

THE CHAPELS OF LONDON.

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHAPEL,
Finsbury.

FINSBURY CHAPEL.

THE UNITARIAN CHAPEL, *South
Place, Finsbury.*

ALBION CHAPEL, *Fore Street.*

“THE spirit of the Catholic Church,” say our friends, the Romanists, “is to unite: that of the Protestant Church to divide.” Assuming the fundamental principle of popery to be true, this assertion is doubtless correct. For if there be any power on earth competent, infallibly, to decide points of doctrine and discipline, then, by the assistance of the sword of the civil magistrate, uniformity may be easily obtained. On the contrary, if an appeal is made to Scripture, and the meaning of which every reader be allowed to judge for himself, then a diversity of opinions must follow. But the experience of past ages proves, that if compulsion can produce uniformity, it is but nominal; whereas the charitable forbearance of the Gospel would have maintained the real unity of the church, amid the diversity of opinions found amongst professing Christians. Moreover, the Roman Catholic Church, from the nature of her creed, may claim a right to exclusive salvation within her own *pale*; whereas no Protestant church, from her own principles, can have any such right.

Yet, it unfortunately happened that at the reformation, most of the Protestant churches, following the example of



LONDON INSTITUTION FINSBURY CIRCUS



ALBION CHAPEL LONDON WALL



UNITARIAN CHAPEL. SOUTH PLACE FINSBURY



ROMAN CATHOLIC CHAPEL MOORFIELDS



Rome, asserted the necessity of a compulsory uniformity ; and hereby destroyed the *real spiritual unity of the catholic or universal church*. The subtle, but amiable Hooker, in the preface to his Ecclesiastical Polity roundly asserts, “ That in litigious and controverted causes of such quality, *the will of God is to have them, (the people,) to do whatsoever the sentence of judicial and final decision shall determine, yea, though it seem in their private opinion to swerve utterly from that which is right.*” If so, liberty of conscience, and the right of private judgment are at an end. Unity in the church, after all, can only be made to exist on Christian principles—“ forbearing each other in love :” a complete toleration, therefore, in religion, must be the glory and safety of every free country. All who differ from the established religion of a country must be reckoned as *Dissenters*, be they Catholics, Presbyterians, Methodists, Independents, or otherwise ; and since the repeal of all our intolerant statutes, none are, in law, regarded as schismatics.

For the doctrines of popery we must refer our readers to the decrees (Concillii Tridentini Canones, &c.) of the Council of Trent, and to Dens’ (Theologia Moralis et Dogmatica) Theology. The usual morning service is what is called *mass*, and is declared to be a sacrifice offered to God for the living and the dead. It likewise has a reference throughout to the passion, &c., of the blessed Saviour, although probably this would not be apparent without a guide. The following detail of the analogy between *the mass* and the *gospel history* may be new to some of our readers.—1. The priest approaches the altar, signifying the entrance of Christ into the garden of Olives ;—2. The priest begins the service, “ In nomine, &c.,” corresponding to the Redeemer’s prayer, in the garden ;—3. The priest recites

the confession, (*confiteor*), indicating the bloody sweat of Christ;—4. The priest kisses the altar, shewing the betraying of the Saviour by a kiss;—5. The priest goes to the left side of the altar, expressive of the apprehension of Christ;—6. The *introitum* (*Aufer a nobis, &c.*) is read, commemorative of Christ being brought before Annas;—7. The *kyrie eleison*, or Lord have mercy upon us, is three times repeated, because Peter denied his Lord three times;—8. The priest, turning toward the people, says, (*Dominus vobiscum*) “The Lord be with you,” referring to the Lord looking upon Peter;—9. The priest reads the epistle commemorative of Christ being accused before Pilate;—10. The priest bows at the middle of the altar, repeating in a whisper, (*Munda cor, &c.*) “Cleanse my heart, &c.,” expressive of the Redeemer’s silence before Herod;—11. The gospel is read, shewing that Christ was sent from Herod to Pilate;—12. The priest uncovers the chalice, indicating the disrobing of the Saviour to be scourged;—13. The belief, (*Credo, &c.*) having been rehearsed, the priest consecrates the host, (*Suscipe, &c.*) referring to the scourging of Christ;—14. The priest covers the cup after its consecration, expressive of Christ being crowned with thorns;—15. The priest washes his hands, referring to Pilate’s declaring Christ innocent;—16. The priest, turning toward the assistants, says, (*Orate fratres*), “Pray, my brethren,” &c.; to signify Christ being covered with a purple robe;—17. The *preface* is said, (*Per omnia*) “Through all ages, &c.,” declarative of the Redeemer’s sentence to be crucified;—18. The priest prays for all the faithful living, corresponding to the leading forth of Christ to be crucified;—19. The priest covers both the host and the cup with his hands, shewing that St. Veronica presented

her handkerchief to her Lord ;—20. The signs of the cross are made on the host, and on the cup, to represent Christ nailed to the cross ;—21. The adoration and elevation of the host, refer to the elevation of the cross ;—22. The elevation of the cup, shewing that Christ's blood was shed ;—23. The priest says, (memento) " Remember, O Lord, &c.," because Christ prayed for his enemies ;—24. The words, " also for us sinners," (*nobis quoque peccatoribus*), refer to the promise made to the penitent thief ;—25. The Lord's prayer (*Pater noster*), is said, indicating the committal of the virgin to the care of the disciple John ;—26. The priest breaks the host in two, pointing out the surrender of the Redeemer's soul to his Father ;—27. A portion of the host is put into the cup, significant of the descent of Christ's soul into hell ;—28. The priest smites his breast, repeating three times the words, (*Agnus Dei*), " Lamb of God, &c.," representing the sorrowing disciples leaving the cross ;—29. The priest receives the host, shewing the entombment of Christ ;—30. The cup received, indicative of the embalment of the Saviour ;—31. The post-communion " Thy body O Lord," (*Corpus tuum*), is repeated, declarative of the resurrection of Christ ;—32. The priest, turning to his assistants, says, (*Dominus vobiscum*), " The Lord be with you." referring to Christ's appearance to his disciples ;—33. The last prayers refer to Christ's continuance on earth during forty days ;—34. The mass (*Ite missa est*) is declared to be ended, shewing the Saviour's ascension ;—35. And finally, the priest pronounces the benediction, indicative of the descent of the Holy Spirit, according to the Redeemer's promise: Such is the sacrifice of the popish mass! Of the analogy between it, and the worship of the primitive church, as recorded in the New Testament, let our readers judge.

FINSBURY CHAPEL belongs to that large denomination of professing Christians known by the name of Independents. Their name, unhappily, but too well expresses what they are—a rope of sand, having no united system of discipline or worship; each congregation, in all respects, acting for itself. The constant alteration of such churches may consequently be easily accounted for. The system, if such it may be called, is replete with inconvenience, and discomfort, both to ministers and people; the minister being, but too often, either the lord or the slave of the congregation. Perhaps, formerly, from the persecution which the Puritans, endured, no regular and efficient plan of organization could have been effected; but now, when every disability is removed, we wonder that means are not taken to prevent the decline of this section of the christian church. We question whether more dissenting families are now to be found, than when the unrighteous act of uniformity passed in 1661. The congregations, moreover, not being central, but collected from great distances, exert no good influence upon the neighbourhood where the different chapels are situated. London dissenting ministers also, when specially wanted, are not easily to be found, in consequence of their residence not being in the locality of their chapel. In a few instances, possibly, the dissenting clergy may be over-paid; but generally speaking, it is the reverse,—independent ministers, like curates of the Church of England, receive an amount of income insufficient for their comfortable support, and no provision whatever is made for disease and old age. The creed of the Independents is essentially in accordance with the articles of the Church of England; but their worship, for the most part, is conducted without the use of a liturgy. Could an alliance be formed between the orthodox dissenters and the

evangelical clergy of the established Church, having one common and reformed liturgy, and psalm-book, with a certain and uniform provision for the ministers, we believe that religious worship throughout the country would soon be very different from what it now is.

THE UNITARIAN CHAPEL next claims our attention. This building has long been pronounced unorthodox in every respect, dissenting from the true faith of legitimate architecture. The columns are Ionic, and the entablature and pediment ill-proportioned. It was built for the use of a congregation which formerly used to meet in Parliament-court, Bishopsgate, once under the pastoral care of the Rev. Elhanan Winchester, a preacher of the doctrine of universal restoration. Unitarianism was subsequently embraced. Of the mischievous tendency of Unitarianism, the Churches of Geneva, France, Germany, England, and America, bear ample testimony. "It has always commenced," says the author of the *Modern Traveller*, vol. 23, "not with the people, but with the pastors, and by its natural history, marks it as the hybrid production of Deism, and nominal Christianity." Whether the more ancient history of the congregation meeting in Finsbury-place Chapel, answers to this description, let the facts decide. The Rev. Mr. Fox formerly professed himself to be the christian pastor of this flock; but what J. W. Fox, Esq., M. P., the presiding rabbbi in this temple of reason, professes to be, we know not. We do, however, know that Voltaire, Rousseau, and Gibbon, mainly contributed to drive the doctrines of the reformed church from the pulpits of Geneva; but whether a similar influence has operated in Finsbury, we pretend not to determine. Still we think that it would be unjust to Unitarians, meanly as we estimate their system, to identify

them with the congregation of Finsbury-place. No men more thoroughly denounce the *spurious Rationalism* of this place than Unitarians themselves.

ALBION CHAPEL is in connexion with the established Church of Scotland, forming a section of the Presbyterian body. The term, Presbyterian, applied to an English congregation, not allied to the established or free Church of Scotland, is a complete *misnomer*. A description of the interior of a dissenting chapel is simply to say that it has a *pulpit* and *pews*.

OFFICE FOR PAYNE'S ILLUSTRATED LONDON.

WE feel assured that the Proprietors of the ILLUSTRATED LONDON would withhold from us their thanks should we attempt any thing like a *puff* on their account. We content ourselves with saying, that should our friends from the country, visiting London, be desirous of inspecting other illustrated works than that of the LONDON, and will, when in the neighbourhood of St. Paul's, or Blackfriars-bridge, look out for the beautiful spire of St. Bride's Church, Fleet-street, they will find no great difficulty in meeting with No. 88, *our place of publication*.

LONDON IMPROVEMENTS.

THE TREASURY—*Whitehall*.
ADELPHI TERRACE—*Strand*.
LOWNDES SQUARE—*Pimlico*.
QUEEN'S ROAD PALACE GARDENS—
Bayswater.
HANOVER TERRACE—*Regent's Park*.
CORNWALL TERRACE—*Regent's Park*.

CUMBERLAND TERRACE — *Regent's Park*.
MACCLESFIELD BRIDGE — *Regent's Park*.
NEW COVENTRY STREET.
CRANBOURN STREET—*Leicester-square*

THE above are amongst the many modern improvements of London, and to which reference has already been frequently made.



ST. MICHAEL'S CHESTER 30



WINDERS SQUARE



THE "TREASURY" WHITEHALL

The **TREASURY**, Whitehall, one of the principal government offices, has lately undergone a thorough repair, with considerable additions, but which, though executed from the designs of Mr. Barry, are, in our judgment, no improvement.

The **ADELPHI TERRACE**, on the banks of the Thames, and the adjoining streets as far as the Strand, occupy the ground on which Durham House formerly stood, the property of Queen Elizabeth, and given by her to the unfortunate Sir Walter Raleigh. The buildings on the *site* of the ancient palace being in a ruinous state, were purchased and removed by Messrs. Adam, and the immense pile of buildings called the Adelphi, substituted, forming one of the first of the more modern improvements in Westminster. The extreme depth of the foundations, the massy piers of brick-work, and the spacious vaults here employed, will ever excite the wonder of the ignorant, and the applause of the skilful. The front of the Adelphi presents an imposing appearance from the river, and cannot be viewed without conferring a due meed of praise upon the spirited projectors.

LOWNDES SQUARE, Pimlico, from the loftiness of the houses, and the singular style of its buildings, will probably not be thought inferior to the many new squares and streets which adorn this locality; whilst on the northern side of Hyde Park, Queen's Road Palace Gardens, Bayswater, and the numerous ranges of immense houses or palaces, in the neighbourhood of Tyburn, will no less attract and surprise the beholder.

With the beauties of the Regent's Park every person visiting London is acquainted; and amongst the numerous splendid terraces there to be found, those designated **HANOVER**, **CORNWALL**, **CUMBERLAND**, and others, will not fail to bespeak

the enterprising spirit and skill of those architects and builders by whom they were designed and executed.

MACCLESFIELD BRIDGE, which conducts out of the Regent's Park, deserves notice. It is picturesque and appropriate, if not over classical. The centre arch is appropriated to the canal and the towing path, while the two external arches are for the accommodation of foot-passengers beneath them, and as viaducts for the road above them.

The opening lately made from Piccadilly through NEW COVENTRY STEET, Leicester Square, and CRANBOURN STREET, to Holborn, is a great improvement.

EXETER HALL, STRAND.

THE want of a building in London sufficiently spacious for holding general public meetings was long felt. Exeter Hall has supplied that *desideratum*. Politics here are inadmissible; the subjects introduced having reference, for the most part, to the moral and religious improvement of the *human family*.

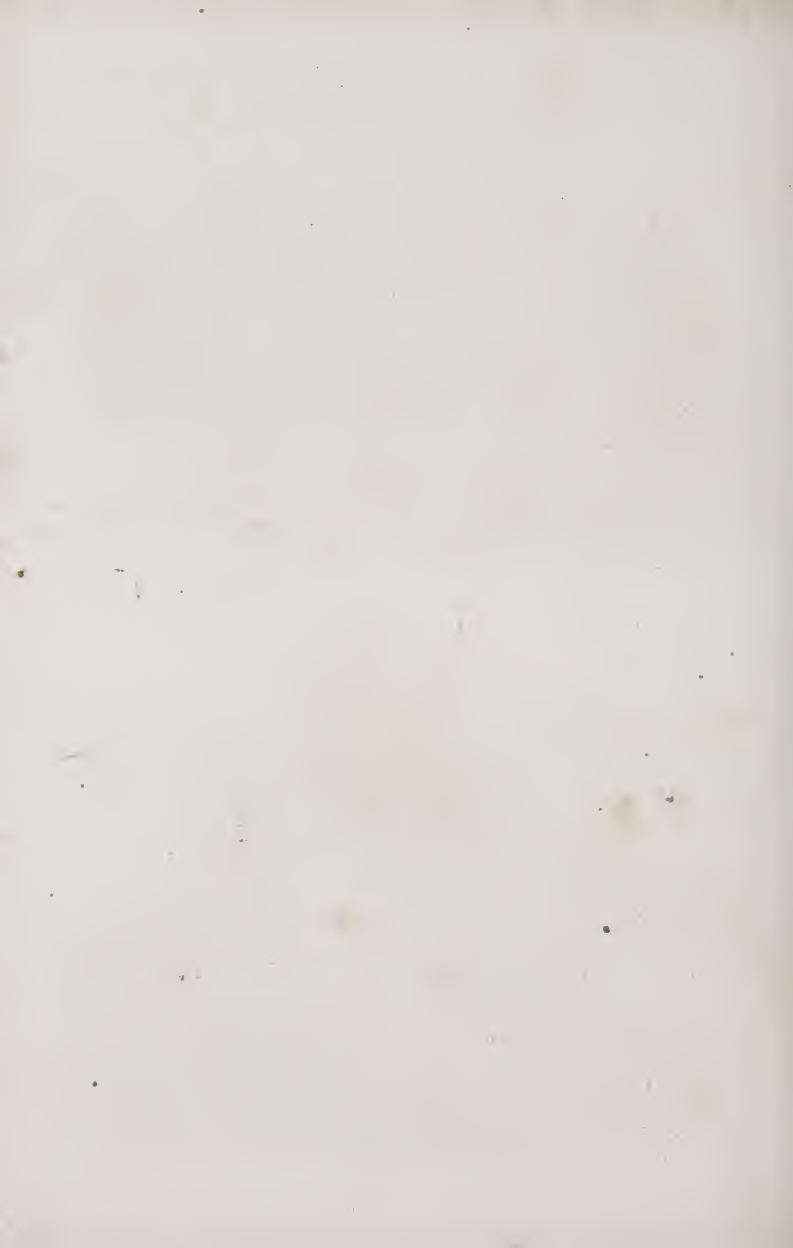
The inscription over the front entrance, ΦΙΛΑΔΕΛΦΕΙΟΝ, (Philadelphieion) may, by a free translation, be rendered,—*The place of meeting for those who "love as brethren."* Although the Strand front is but contracted, yet the entrance has a very imposing appearance, the portico being formed by two pillars and two pilasters, of the Corinthian order. A double flight of steps leads to a wide landing, from which a second but single flight conducts to the hall, a room of large dimensions, fitted up with well arranged amphitheatrical seats. At the eastern end is an extensive platform or orchestra, with a splendid organ in the centre, and two small galleries on



MACCLESFIELD BRIDGE
Regent's Park



CENTRE OF CUMBERLAND TERRACE,
Regent's Park





ROYAL COLLEGE OF SURGEONS



ANATOMICAL THEATRE



OLD BAILEY, OR THE OLD COURT HOUSE.



OLD BAILEY, OR THE OLD COURT HOUSE.



VINTNERS' HALL,
Upper Thames Street.



SKINNERS' HALL,
Lower Thames Street.



SALTERS HALL

W. J. Smith, Esq.



CHESTER, U.S.







THE GUILDHALL

either side; while at the western end, is a convenient gallery running the whole width of the building. The hall is, moreover, well lighted and ventilated, having, by day or night, every convenience for concerts or public meetings. On the ground floor is another hall of smaller size, together with a number of convenient rooms, used for business purposes.

THE CITY HALLS.

GUILDHALL— <i>King Street.</i>	SALTERS' HALL— <i>St. Swithin's Lane.</i>
APOTHECARIES' HALL— <i>Blackfriars.</i>	SKINNERS' HALL— <i>Dowgate Hill</i>
DRAPERS' HALL— <i>Throgmorton-street.</i>	VINTNERS' HALL— <i>Upper Thames-st.</i>
IRONMONGERS' HALL— <i>Fenchurch-st.</i>	

THE GUILDHALL, Cheapside, is the principal place for transacting city-business. The courts of aldermen, and the common council are held here; and where likewise the mayor sheriffs, and the representatives of the city in parliament, are elected. The hall, or chief room, in the building, is one hundred and fifty-three feet long, forty-eight feet wide, and fifty-five feet high. The figures of Gog and Magog, formerly much more talked of than at present, still hold their places in Guildhall.

Of the structure itself little more need be said, than, that only a few years ago it received a new Gothic front, over the centre of which are the city arms. The citizens possess a tolerable library, considered particularly valuable for works having a reference to the history, immunities, &c., of London. The monuments of Chatham, Pitt, Nelson, and Beckford, likewise deserve notice. The chamberlain's office is a very fine room, containing a collection of corporation votes, given to our modern heroes, splendidly illuminated on vellum, and framed and glazed. The council chamber contains a number of paint-

ings, presented by Alderman Boydell, a statue of George III., by Chantry, and a portrait of her present Majesty, painted by Hayter. The courts of law form the eastern wing of Guildhall, the justice hall, for hearing cases of misdemeanours, &c., the western. A succinct account of the Corporation of London will be found in our article on the Mansion House, and in the general history.

Of the CITY COMPANIES it will suffice to say that each of them has a private history of its own; and many of them have halls noted either for splendour, antiquity, paintings, or curiosities, which it would be impossible to particularize. The companies are ninety-one in number, twelve of which claim priority. As corporate bodies they have *armorial bearings*, some having appropriate mottoes, others are mere *puns*. The motto of the Joiners' Company, for example, is "*Join truth with truth*;" that of the Blacksmiths,—" *By hammer and hand all arts do stand*;" and that of the learned Glaziers,—" *Da nobis lucem Domine*,"—in English, "*Give us light, O Lord*." As *brotherhoods*, the City Companies are useful and praiseworthy; the heart of many a decayed brother, having been cheered by their means.

THEATRES OF LONDON.

THE QUEEN'S THEATRE, OR ITALIAN
OPERA HOUSE—*Haymarket*.

DRURY LANE THEATRE.

COVENT GARDEN THEATRE, OR NEW
OPERA HOUSE.

THEATRE ROYAL—*Haymarket*.

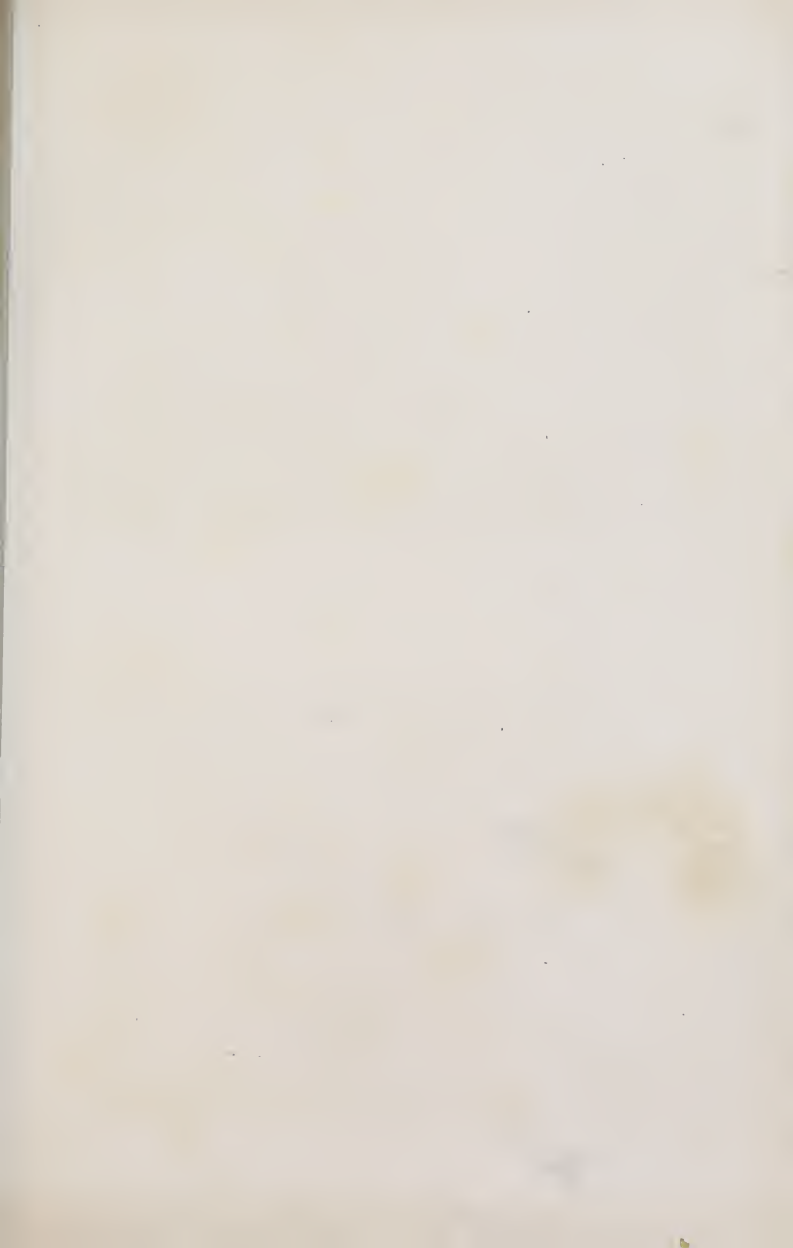
THE ADELPHI THEATRE—*Strand*.

ENGLISH OPERA HOUSE.—*Wellington
Street, Strand*.

THE PRINCE'S THEATRE—*St. James's
Street*.

THE PRINCESS'S THEATRE—*Oxford
Street*.

A history of the drama of a country, would be almost equivalent to the history of civilized society in that country. The





POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION.



PRINCESS THEATRE.

dramatic art may have varied in different parts of the world, yet its elements every where are essentially the same. Amongst the islanders of the South Seas, a rude kind of drama is known to exist, and in India a rich dramatic literature may be traced for the last two thousand years. It is the opinion of some, that dramatic spectacles are necessary in all populous cities. Whether this be true in all instances, may, perhaps, be doubtful. Certain it is, that the drama seems every where to have prevailed, and the practices of the stage to have emigrated from one country to another, however diversified from a variety of causes.

Hence, though the modern English drama may have had its origin in those allegorical and spiritual pieces called *moralities* and *mysteries*, introduced, at first, by the clergy, for the purposes of instruction and entertainment; yet that ultimately it became corrected and improved, according to those rules of art which were so well accredited by other nations, ancient and modern.

Our original religious dramas were, doubtless, of French extraction; the actors, in the more incipient stages, being the priests, and the churches serving the place of theatres. Many of these miracle-plays, and plays of character, are still extant; their use having continued to a very late period. Of the latter kind, there is one entitled "The Life and Repentance of Mary Magdalen," printed in 1567; and another, of about the same date, on the history of Jacob and Esau, but written with the humour of a comedy. Tragedy, arranged in a more artificial form, appears, about the same period, to have been gradually introduced. One of the first tragedies was called "Ferrex and Porrex;" but which, though cast into five acts or parts, in the usual way of our

more modern productions was, notwithstanding, written in defiance of those antique *unities* acknowledged by other European nations.

The mystery plays having been in a measure suppressed, and driven from the churches, plays of history, character, or sentiment, supplied their place, performed, at first, during daylight on open stages or scaffolds, the actors and the audience being out of doors. Queen Elizabeth was fond of theatrical representations, and much encouraged the professors of the histrionic art, having one company under her immediate patronage. Under such auspices, we need scarcely wonder that dramatic writers and performers should have greatly increased. The transition of the English drama was remarkable, rising at once from almost the lowest state of buffoonery, to the highest excellence the English stage has ever attained. Shakespeare, Jonson, Marlow, Massinger, Beaumont and Fletcher, being either cotemporaries, or followers, in quick succession.

Still writings of this remarkable period cannot be tested by the conventional rules of art. Shakespeare and his compeers were either ignorant of those rules, which had been established; or knowing them, did not choose to comply with them; but soared into those high regions of romance and poetry, whither later writers have vainly sought to reach. It is remarkable, that while Shakespeare, in England, regardless of all dramatic rules, should have *warbled* in the wildest strains, with an inspiration of the highest poetical elevation; his immediate successors, in France, Corneille, Racine, and Crebillon, should have produced dramas of the most artificial and polished description, strictly conforming also to the rules of art.

It is also worthy of remark, that though the early French

drama was, in an eminent degree, moral, that of the English was the very reverse. The works of Shakespeare, one of the least immoral of our early dramatic writers, contain such a mixture of sublime, didactic, and moral poetry, mixed with so much mere nonsense, ribaldry, and obscenity, that not a single play of that great writer, without considerable abridgment, can be read by a father to a family of daughters. Beaumont and Fletcher more nearly resemble Shakespeare than any others of our romantic dramatists, partaking largely of that licentiousness found in their predecessor; but without making more than a distant approach to his excellencies. The *mannerism* of the learned Ben Jonson, makes him stand one by himself.

Our drama experienced no particular change until the breaking out of the civil war, when the puritans, having long complained of the demoralizing tendency of the stage, *players* and *play goers* were alike made chargeable with a penal offence. The laws, under the Protectorate, might have been well intended; but the total suppression of a national amusement, was more the effect of zeal than prudence.

With the return of Charles II., the national drama was restored with increased licentiousness. In conformity with the practices of the continent, women now, for the first time, sustained female characters on the stage, such parts having previously been filled by boys. The plays, especially the comedies, of this period, cannot now be performed, without great alteration and abridgment. The dramatic writings of Dryden, Shadwell, Wycherley, Congreve, Farquhar, and even those of a later date, correspond to that indecency of expression, and licentiousness of manners with which the *second* Charles had infected his court and the country. This is observable not merely in single speeches, but in the whole plot; the fashion-

able rake, or debauchée, the hero of the piece, introducing a moral scepticism, which ridicules marriage, and every restraint upon vice.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century, the state of our drama remained essentially the same. The dramatic productions of Fielding, possessing at once the character of his novels were humorous and licentious ; and which led the government to attempt some restraint upon the number of theatres, and upon plays also, by subjecting them to the lord chamberlain's licence. This may have produced some good ; but even the more modern comedies cannot be held up as models of purity. Murphy's comedy of " The Way to keep him," and Sheridan's play of " The School for Scandal," are alike objectionable, although couched in decent language, for their immoral tendency.

English tragedies, generally speaking, are far less objectionable than our comedies. The tragedies of Lee, Otway, Southern, Rowe, Addison, Young, Johnson, and others, are rather frigid and spiritless, than immoral.

About the period of which we are treating, may be dated the introduction of the Italian Opera. Against this inroad upon the legitimate English drama, Steele and Addison, the conservators of public manners, made a powerful, though unsuccessful effort to bring it into contempt by ridicule. In the *Tatler*, of April 19th, 1709, the writer says,—“ Letters from the Haymarket inform us, that on Saturday night last, the opera of Pyrrhus and Demetris was performed with great applause. This intelligence is not very acceptable to us friends of the theatre ; for the stage being *an entertainment of the reason*, and *all our faculties*, this way of being pleased with the suspense of them for three hours together, and being given

up to the shallow satisfaction of the eyes and ears only, *seems to arise from the degeneracy of our understanding*, rather than an improvement of our diversions." Many papers in the Spectator might be quoted, reiterating the same sentiments. Gay's "*Beggar's Opera*," though, in all respects, a most objectionable production, was likewise levelled at the Italian Opera; but failing to produce that effect, it was the means of introducing a new species of entertainment, since called the English Opera. What would these writers say, could they witness the *Jenny Lind mania* of the present day, occasioned by the appearance of a *Swedish nightingale*?

It has often been affirmed that the English are not a theatrical people. Of this we presume not to judge; but one thing is certain, that some kind of *nationality* must exist in reference to such matters. Our neighbours, the French, naturally a lively people, are, it is well known, constant attendants at the theatre, listening with deep attention to the long and prosy speeches of their favourite authors. But they do this, as it seems to us, not for the purpose of amusement or excitement, but from a desire, however, unconscious of the fact themselves, of being *sobered down* for the night. On the contrary, the graver English, deeply engaged during the whole day in business, desire a little excitement or amusement in the evening; and whether that be obtained of Kean or Liston; of Jim Crow or Jenny Lind; of Madame Vestris or Monsr. Julien; no great matter. Still, fashion and the *aristocracy* have, no doubt, an important influence upon public taste, the *cits* being willing to follow those of the *west-end*; or not to say it profanely,—*one fool making many!*

Towards the close of the year 1741, the celebrated Garrick made his first appearance at Goodman's Fields, a minor theatre

of London. The metropolitan stage, at this period, was indifferently supplied with actors, and the style of acting employed, artificial and declamatory. The effect of a return to a natural mode of recitation, with that facility of expression which Garrick possessed in an eminent degree, insured the most complete success. The part of Richard III. gave him ample scope for the development of his extraordinary powers. The next year we find him at Drury Lane. He has the reputation of having reformed many abuses in the conduct and licence of the drama. His success continued long and uninterrupted.

An interval of only about seven years elapsed between the retirement of Garrick, and the appearance of J. P. Kemble, in 1783. He was a man of learning, and of elegant manners and accomplishments. His natural capabilities were, doubtless, extraordinary, and these he had matured by intense application. The drama owes much to him in various and considerable improvements. Several old plays he altered and improved. He exhibited, moreover, a refined and accurate taste, in the rectification of scenic decoration, and the adoption of appropriate costume. The former part of his career was encouraging; but the larger theatres in London were on the *wane* long before the retirement of Kemble from the stage. The characters in which he excelled, and his general style of acting, were very different from those of Garrick.

Just before the retirement of Kemble from Covent Garden, another *star* had arisen at the rival house of Drury Lane,—the talented, but unhappy Edmund Kean. He made his *debut* in January 1814, in the character of Shylock, and with triumphant success. “The house,” observes a cotemporary writer, “was empty of nearly all but critics, and those who



Abbey

THE ITALIAN OPERA HOUSE

came in with oranges or orders. His voice was harsh, his style new, his action abrupt and angular ; but there was the decision, the inspiration of genius, in the look, the tone, the bearing ; the hard unbending Jew was before us !” The noblest conceptions of Shakespeare, Richard III., Hamlet and Othello, were faithfully, even painfully, *personated* by Kean. But this sudden success was the actor’s ruin. His vast powers, at the expiration of about ten years, failed him ; so that when he attempted the new character of Henry V. he was unequal to the task ; and those who once adored him, now viewed him with pity and contempt.

Of the present state of our national drama little need be said, since it must be apparent to every one, on looking only into a newspaper, that Drury Lane and Covent Garden Theatres are completely prostrate. Whether this has arisen from any disinclination in the public mind to patronise our legitimate drama ;—or whether the attractions of operatic productions, especially those of the Italian Opera, have superseded the necessity of scenic performances of tragedy or comedy ;—whether the immense size of the *patent* houses have deterred persons from entering them, knowing that nothing could be distinctly seen, or well heard ;—whether the lighter and shorter pieces represented at the minor theatres have proved more attractive ;—whether the reading of novels and romances has produced the required excitement ;—whether any moral or religious feeling has operated to the prejudice of the theatres ;—whether the change has arisen from a dearth of histrionic talents or authors ;—whether, we repeat, any, or all of these causes, have been productive of the change, may perhaps be difficult to determine. The declension is evident.

From the beginning of the present century, this fact has

been most apparent. At Covent Garden, during twelve years, from 1809 to 1821, the whole receipts of the house were unequal to the current expenses. But in the next ten years the accounts were still more deplorable, showing an average loss of £20,000 per annum. It is, moreover, a remarkable fact, that Drury Lane Theatre is precisely in a similar state. In this deplorable state of things, we can feel no surprise that Melpomene and Thalia, the *genii* of tragedy and comedy, should have forsaken their splendid temples of Drury-lane and Bow-street, and sought an asylum in the humbler *domiciles* of Sadler's Wells and Marylebone. For farther particulars, see a tract just published, (Sept. 1847), entitled, "The drama as it is."

THE QUEEN'S THEATRE, OR ITALIAN OPERA HOUSE, Haymarket, is appropriated to the performance of Italian operas, followed by a ballet. From the liberal patronage of our nobility and gentry, it is no wonder that the greatest talent in music and dancing should be procured. The present building was re-modelled in 1820, from designs by Messrs. Nash and Repton. The interior, by Novosielski, is most splendid, having five tiers of boxes. The pit is very spacious, the part next the orchestra being fitted up as stalls. Persons visiting the pit are required to appear *in full dress*. The performances are only three times a week.

DRURY LANE THEATRE has been several times re-built. The present edifice was erected in 1812, from designs of Mr. Wyatt. The interior, though large, is well constructed, and will accommodate 2,700 persons. A spacious saloon communicates with the box lobbies, forming a promenade.

COVENT GARDEN THEATRE was opened in 1809, having been re-built under the superintendence of Sir R. Smirke.



ST JOHN'S CHURCH UPPER HOLLOWAY



HIGHBURY COLLEGE

The portico of this magnificent structure, consisting of four fluted columns, supporting a pediment, is taken from the temple of Minerva, at Athens. On each side of the portico are emblematical representations, in relievo, of the ancient and modern drama. This national dramatic building, within the walls of which the powerful and thrilling intonations of Kemble and Siddons were once to be heard, is now used for the performance of operas.

The THEATRE, HAYMARKET, was re-built from a design of Mr. Nash, and may be regarded as a model for a theatre. From its size and construction, every line pronounced may, from any part of the interior, be distinctly heard.

Of the other theatres, in different parts of the town, it will perhaps be thought sufficient to say, that could the legitimate drama be introduced into them instead of the burlettas, farces and pantomines, which now take place, a change, for the better, in public taste, might possibly be hoped for.

LITERARY INSTITUTIONS.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE—*Gower-street.*

ROYAL COLLEGE OF SURGEONS—

Lincoln's Inn Fields.

HIGHBURY COLLEGE—*Islington.*

LONDON INSTITUTE—*Finsbury Circus.*

CROSBY HALL—*Bishopsgate-street.*

POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE—*Regent-street.*

LONDON, strictly speaking, has never been the seat of the muses, that honour having been conceded to Oxford and Cambridge, but by what prescriptive right we know not. Persons living in the metropolis having sons to be educated, and not perhaps greatly in love with the discipline of the two seats of learning just referred to; or being dissenters from the established church are excluded, not very justly, by the very statutes of the universities from partaking of that education

which was once free to all; have been obliged to look to a more private education, or to the Scottish universities, or to the foreign Protestant colleges.

Young men also, desirous of being possessed of sound learning for the proper discharge of the holy ministry, had a right to expect assistance from the national institutions of their country; but to their disappointment, they find that when application is made to the *almæ matres*, (loving mothers), dwelling on the banks of the *Isis*, and the *Cam*, the response for the last two hundred years has been,—“ It is not meet to take the children’s bread and to cast it to dogs.” And then the young men of England, having received a chance-medley clerical education, are to be reproached for their want of learning, or preaching in a style of *cant*. We are not the advocates of any sect; but as far as we know, whatever the dissenting clergy may be in other respects, they are, in reading, in speaking, and in biblical knowledge, fully equal to the clergy of the established church.

The existence of the facts just stated, led to the establishment, in 1825, of University College, called before its incorporation with King’s College, the London University. Its objects are—(1.) To enable parents to educate their boys under their own immediate inspection;—(2.) To afford to young men studying for the ministry, the opportunity of acquiring a sound university education; and (3.) farther, the establishment of systematic courses of education for professional pursuits;—law, medicine, and civil engineering.

The necessary funds for the erection of a building suitable for these purposes, were raised by subscriptions for £100 shares, and a few donations of £50. The amount subscribed was £161,000; and the donations £2350. His late Royal Highness

the Duke of Sussex, became the patron of the University; and which, towards the end of 1828, was in full operation.

In 1830, application was made to the crown for a charter of incorporation; and which, at first, appeared likely to have been obtained without opposition. But not so;—the fable of the dog in the manger, has unhappily been but too often acted in real life. Opposition was preparing; and the first in the battle-field were (is it credible?) the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, followed soon after by the professors of the different medical schools in London, and the Royal College of Surgeons. But at length, in 1835, the government most wisely proposed to incorporate, by charter, as a university in London, a body of gentlemen of eminence in learning and science, who should have the power of examining candidates, and of conferring degrees in *Arts, Medicine, and Laws*, on students of certain colleges in London, and others existing throughout the country, to be afterwards recognised, as well as the various schools of professional education. The University thus defined, was to be maintained by an annual grant of money by Parliament; and the degrees conferred without reference to denominational differences. The London University, henceforth to be designated University College, was to have a charter as a college, and to be recognised as one of the schools entitled to send up students for examination. This arrangement, highly creditable to a liberal ministry, was accepted; and University College saved from ruin. For such had been the opposition made to it, and so many the difficulties which had arisen, that but for this support of the government, the newly-raised college would have been swamped. It is a known fact that some of the early professors received no emolument for their labours during several years.

Young men designed for the ministry amongst the dissenters, and coming to London for that purpose, have been usually located in one of the academies, or colleges, in the neighbourhood of town, at each of which there are from ten to forty students. These formerly received the whole of their education, during about four years, from tutors attached to such institutions; but now they are encouraged, or obliged, to become members of University College; where having attended the philological and mathematical classes, afterwards go through a course of lectures, in the academy to which they belong, on dogmatical and moral theology. The students enjoy the farther advantage of having their compositions revised by their own divinity professor; with opportunities of preaching occasionally in some of the dissenting chapels. The entire course of study now requires from five to six years. This new arrangement, we need scarcely add, will prove highly beneficial to those who are to become the future pastors of congregational churches. We have gone into this digression as an introduction to the pictorial view of HIGH-BURY COLLEGE, one of the largest establishments for the education of dissenting clergymen in or near London.

The average number of students at University College, during seven years, terminating with the end of the session of 1842, had been as follows;—in Arts and Law, one hundred and forty-five; and in Medicine four hundred and thirty. The ordinary annual expenses of the establishment, exclusive of professors and teachers, amount to £3,500. The faculty of Arts and Laws consists of the professors of Latin, Greek, English, French, Italian, Hebrew, Arabic, Persian, and Hindostani; Sanscrit, Chinese, Comparative Grammar, History, Political Economy, Philosophy of the Mind and Logic; Jurisprudence, English Law, Mathematics, Natural Philo-

sophy and Astronomy; Architecture, Civil Engineering, Chemistry, Zoology, Botany, and Geology. The faculty of Medicine consists of the professors of Anatomy and Physiology; Anatomy and Practical Anatomy; Pathological Anatomy, Comparative Anatomy, Medicine, Clinical Medicine, Surgery, Clinical Surgery, Midwifery, Materia Medica, Chemistry, Botany, and Medical Jurisprudence.

University College is in Gower-street, St. Pancras, having been built from the design of the late William Wilkins, Esq., and has rather an imposing appearance. The lecture-rooms and theatres are spacious and commodious; the libraries contain a choice selection of books, but kept distinct; the museums, laboratory, and rooms for business, also are well arranged. The expenses of the building, furniture, museums, and libraries, amounted to about £150,000. The expense of rearing a large and commodious hospital, on the opposite side of the street, is not included in the above estimate.

This college being a branch of the UNIVERSITY OF LONDON, its students are entitled to become candidates for a degree. The degrees granted by the University, are those of B. A., M. A.; B. L., L. L. D., B. M., and M. D.

The ROYAL COLLEGE OF SURGEONS is on the south side of Lincoln's Inn Fields. The building is neat, with a portico in front, of the Ionic order. The surgeons were originally one company with the barbers; but in 1800 they received a distinct corporation by royal charter. To this college is intrusted the care of examining persons professing to have qualified for the practice of surgery. A certificate from Surgeons' Hall being indispensable for holding a professional appointment under government. A course of twenty-four lectures is delivered annually in the theatre, illustrative of some of

the preparations belonging to the college. The splendid museum here deposited, was begun by the celebrated John Hunter, at whose decease it was purchased by government; having since been increased by many valuable and important additions. A more chaste and complete cabinet of anatomical preparations is hardly to be found in Europe. Persons desirous of viewing the museum, may readily obtain an order for that purpose from a member.

CROSBY HOUSE, or HALL, Bishopsgate-street, is of remote antiquity, having been built, in 1470, for Sir John Crosby, then sheriff of London. It afterwards became the residence of the Duke of Gloucester, the notorious Richard III. Shakespeare has immortalized this spot, by introducing it into one of his plays. It remained for many years in the possession of the crown; but subsequently passed into private hands. Having recently been put into a state of repair, it is now employed for the delivery of lectures, and other literary or commercial purposes.

The POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION, Regent-street. Few places in the metropolis better deserve public patronage than this, as instruction and amusement are here happily combined. The chemical lectures, the microscopic experiments, the dissolving views, &c., well merit the attention of every visitor to London. This institution is open in the morning from half-past ten to five; and in the evening, from seven to ten.

The LONDON INSTITUTION, Finsbury Circus, was erected for the reception of an extensive and valuable library of ancient and modern books; for reading and lecture-rooms; and for a laboratory. Its affairs are managed by a committee of proprietors.



CROSBY HALL
 20, Abchurch Lane



OFFICE FOR PAYNE'S ILLUSTRATED LONDON
 55, FLEET STREET



GRAY'S INN HALL



MIDDLE TEMPLE HALL



NEW LIBRARY (TEMPLE)



FIDELITY AND PAID





INTERIOR OF THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, COURTS OF LAW, & INNS OF COURTS.

WESTMINSTER HALL—*Palace-yard.*

THE INTERIOR OF THE HOUSE OF
LORDS.

NEW HALL AND LIBRARY—*Lincoln's
Inn.*

THE TEMPLE LIBRARY.

MIDDLE TEMPLE HALL.

FURNIVAL'S INN—*Holborn.*

GRAY'S INN HALL—*Holborn.*

LEGISLATION in every country is most important, being the very bulwark by which an entire population are banded together. It is more particularly so, under a free government, where the sovereign forms but one branch of the legislature; the nobles and the commons, as in Great Britain, forming the other. The union of these branches is essential, before any enactment can become law.

The constitution of the United Kingdom has often, and deservedly, been the subject of panegyric, especially since the reforms which, at a comparatively recent period, have taken place in the House of Commons. That the English constitution is faultless, it would be folly to assert; but still, as a whole, we believe, that nothing human has fewer defects.

The laws of England, speaking generally, are characterized both in themselves and their administration for being pre-eminently *just*. Their principal defect arising from the slowness of their progress, and the great expense which they involve. Where the matter at issue is but small, it will be found expedient, because advantageous, to suffer a partial wrong, rather than run the risk of a protracted and expensive litigation. The law of the Gospel, even with a literal interpretation, will, in most cases, be found the wiser course;—"If any man will sue thee at the law, and take away thy coat, let him have thy cloak also."

WESTMINSTER HALL claims our attention on more accounts than one. It is the grand seat of law. Trials by impeachment are held here. Charles I. received sentence of death in this hall. Here likewise the memorable trial of Warren Hastings took place, which lasted for seven years. The conviviality of coronation festivals also have been often witnessed in this hall. The courts of justice are on the western side of the hall, and may be entered from it. The first, beginning from the great northern entrance, is the Court of Queen's Bench, and its bail court; then the Court of Common Pleas; the third is the Court of Exchequer, now being also a Court of Common Pleas; and the fourth the Equity Court, or Court of Chancery. The courts of the Vice Chancellors are likewise here. Intelligent visitors, especially foreigners, cannot fail to admire the order and equity of our judicial proceedings.

Westminster Hall is one immense room, being three hundred and eighty feet long, seventy-two broad, and about one hundred feet high. It is, with the exception of the theatre at Oxford, the largest room, unsupported by columns, in Europe. The style is the old Gothic, and originally built in 1098 by William Rufus,

Immediately behind Westminster Hall stood St. Stephen's Chapel, used as the place of meeting of the Commons, with another building contiguous, used by the Lords. But on the night of the 16th of October, 1834, the two Houses of Parliament were almost entirely destroyed by fire. Shortly after, it having been decided that a suitable structure should be reared to accommodate both the Peers and Commoners, a number of designs from different architects were prepared and exhibited; when the Lord Commissioners selected that design, which is now, after many modifications, rapidly advancing



NEW HALL & LIBRARY, LINCOLN'S INN

towards its completion. It is a building of vast extent, connecting in one comprehensive whole the Houses of Parliament, the Courts of Law, and Westminster Hall. The new buildings will cover nearly six acres of land. The eastern or river front is eight hundred and seventy feet in length; the western front four hundred and ten feet; the south front three hundred and forty; and the north end, including Westminster Hall and the Law Courts, three hundred feet. The building is in the Tudor style of architecture.

However unsatisfactory this *monster erection* may be in itself; yet it has led to most important consequences. The encouragement which the Commissioners have given to the Fine Arts has been great; added to which the high gratification afforded to the masses of our population. Let it never again be asserted, that our people of the lower orders have no taste for the Fine Arts. The experiments made by the exhibitions in Westminster Hall prove the very reverse.

THE INNS OR HOTELS OF COURT are four in number, viz:—LINCOLN'S INN, The MIDDLE TEMPLE, The INNER TEMPLE, and GRAY'S INN. Whatever may have been the case formerly, each Inn of Court is now governed by its own *benchers*, who fill up the vacancies in their own body. To them also belongs the power of calling persons to the degree of barristers at law. The qualifications for entitling persons for this honour, are that they must be twenty-one years of age, have kept twelve terms, and have been for five years a member of the society; or if a graduate of one of the English universities, or of that of Trinity College, Dublin, three years. The expense of being called to the bar amounts to about £90, exclusive of three years' *commons*, and the admission fees.

LINCOLN'S INN derives its name from Henry Lacey, Earl

of Lincoln. The buildings form a quadrangle, the chapel and hall occupying two sides. A large Gothic structure has lately been erected, which, though antiquated and ugly without, is splendid and convenient within, containing a spacious dining room, a library, and various committee rooms and offices.

The INNER and MIDDLE TEMPLE join, the former having a hall and chapel; the latter a hall of curious workmanship, and several valuable paintings. The gardens extending along the banks of the Thames, have been already noticed.

GRAY'S INN for its hall and chapel deserves the attention of visitors. The Inns of Chancery need not be enumerated.

EDUCATIONAL AND CHARITABLE ESTABLISHMENTS.

ROYAL MILITARY ASYLUM—*Chelsea.*

LICENSED VICTUALLERS' SCHOOL—

Kennington Lane.

SCHOOL FOR THE INDIGENT BLIND,

St. George's Fields.

WHITTINGTON'S ALMS HOUSES—

Highgate.

NATIONAL education is a subject of such large extent that we cannot do more than glance at it. The matter now in dispute is not whether the masses of the people ought to be educated, but by what means it is to be done. The evils resulting from an uneducated population have become more and more apparent, loudly calling upon the government to make some effort for general educational purposes; our rural districts having remained as much neglected as our large towns.

The ministers of religion are, doubtless, the agents through which such a work should have been accomplished; although hitherto, from various causes, they have done very little in this most important work. Blameable as the clergy may have been in this respect, other causes have also contributed to rivet ignorance upon our youthful population. Had the funds

of the church, at the time of the Reformation, been appropriately applied, not only might the inferior clergy have been suitably provided for, but every parish likewise have been provided with its schools. Instead of this, the immense funds which the church possessed have fallen partly into the hands of laymen, or the beneficed clergy have received such large incomes that the interests of others have been quite overlooked. Chantries, and other popish foundations, were dissolved for the ostensible purpose of establishing grammar schools; yet, far from this having been done, it is notorious, as Strype justly observes, “that private men had most of the benefit, and the king and commonwealth, the state of learning and the condition of the poor, left as they were before, or worse.” It is equally certain that many grammar schools which were endowed for the education of the poorer classes, have been, to a great extent, diverted from their object; or the funds have been dissipated, in some way or other, not always easy of explanation.

The deplorable ignorance amongst the lower classes having long remained almost unchecked, the Rev. Mr. Stock, curate of St. John's, Gloucester, about half a century ago, communicated the idea of Sunday instruction to the benevolent Mr. Raikes. Four Sunday schools were, in consequence, established in the parishes of St. John and St. Katherine. But, prior to this, in 1763, the Rev. Theophilus Lindsey had attempted something of the same kind at Catterick, in Yorkshire; and Miss Bell, a lady of piety and zeal, had commenced a Sunday school at High Wycombe, Bucks. Soon after the commencement of Sunday schools, Joseph Lancaster, a Quaker, laboured with great diligence, in Great Britain and America, for promoting an elementary education for the poor, by the establishment of day schools, since known by the name

of Lancastrian. Lancaster received the highest patronage, his Majesty George III. even not excepted; and travelled for some time as the agent of the British and Foreign School Society. Neither are Dr. Bell's schools less known, although more exclusive. The venerable Oberlin, pastor of Ban de la Roche, appears to have been the founder of infant schools.

By the labours of the excellent individuals just enumerated, the exertions of the Foreign and British School Society, and those of different congregations connected with the established church and the dissenters, hundreds of Sunday and day schools, for infant and elder children, have been established in most parts of the kingdom. Still much remains to be done; but which the efforts of the government, prudently conducted, may easily accomplish. The numerous schools already in operation need not be discouraged, but assisted; and special care taken to have properly conducted normal schools established, for the supply of well qualified schoolmasters and teachers.

Of the gross ignorance of the mistresses of many infant schools there can be but little doubt; and that the masters and teachers of day and Sunday schools are likewise often very deficient for the right discharge of their important duties, cannot be denied. But what are we to expect from masters and teachers sent out from such training schools as those of Battersea and Chelsea? Let our readers only witness the manner in which the services of the church are performed in the chapel of the training school at Chelsea, called St. Mark's College, to be convinced that the opinion entertained of this institution in the neighbourhood is not far from being correct, that it is a *seminary for mass priests*. We mourn to think that under the patronage of a right reverend prelate, *training schools* should be found, first initiating young men and boys



STRENGTH-HOLDING SCHOOL



STRENGTH-HOLDING SCHOOL

into a spurious Christianity, called, for want of a better name, *Tractarianism*; and then sending them out to inoculate the rising generation with the same *spiritual* poison. No institutions throughout the country require a stricter visitation by the legislature, than the training schools of Battersea and Chelsea.

THE ROYAL MILITARY ASYLUM, Chelsea, was built under the immediate patronage of his late Royal Highness the Duke of York, who laid the first stone in 1801. It was originally designed for the reception of the children, boys and girls, of soldiers; but now only boys are received, who are brought up in military discipline. The educational system pursued, is that of Dr. Bell. The building is of brick; but the western front has a noble stone portico of the Doric order, consisting of four immense columns, supporting a large and well proportioned pediment, on the freize of which is inscribed "THE ROYAL MILITARY ASYLUM FOR THE CHILDREN OF THE SOLDIERS OF THE REGULAR ARMY."

THE INSTITUTION FOR THE INDIGENT BLIND, St. George's Fields, is one of the many establishments which voluntary benevolence has raised for the relief of suffering humanity. This institution receives persons of twelve years of age and upwards, and of both sexes. Besides the advantage of learning to read, the inmates are taught some manual art, such as the making of baskets, cradles, mats, and various other articles. The girls are instructed in needle work and knitting. The number in the institution is about seventy. The building is a modern structure of Gothic architecture. Strangers are readily admitted; and the various articles wrought by the inmates, may be purchased at moderate prices.

THE LICENSED VICTUALLERS' SCHOOL, Kennington, claims attention from the benevolent views of its patrons,

being designed as an asylum and school for the orphan children of licensed victuallers. The subscriptions and donations to this charity are augmented by funds arising from the publication of a daily paper, called "The Morning Advertiser;"—to which every member of the Society is expected to subscribe.

WHITTINGTON'S COLLEGE, OR ALMSHOUSE, Highgate-hill, was erected by the Mercers' Company; and forms a conspicuous object to travellers about entering London by the great north road.

THE SIGHTS OF LONDON.

OF the exhibitions of London, pictorial views of which could not be given, we can merely give a list:—

The Dulwich Gallery of Paintings; The British Institution, Pall-mall; The Society of British Artists, Suffolk-street; The Colosseum, Regent's Park; The Two Exhibitions for Water Colours, Pall-mall-east, and Pall-mall; The Museum of Economic Geology, Craig's Court, Charing-cross; The Diorama, Regent's Park; The Panorama, Leicester-square; Madame Tussaud's Wax Work, Baker-street, Portman-square; and Madame Wharton's *Tableaux Vivans*, Leicester-square.

The PRIVATE GALLERIES of paintings in and near London are:—The Grosvenor Gallery, Upper Grosvenor-street; The Stafford Gallery, Belgrave-square; The Duke of Sutherland's, St. James's Park; Lord Ashburton's, Piccadilly; Sir Robert Peel's, Whitehall-gardens; Mr. Samuel Rogers's, 12, St. James's Place; Mr. Vernon's, 50, Pall-mall; Mr. Hope's, Duchess-street, Portland-place; Mr. C. Bridel's, Eaton-square; and Mr. Elhannan Bicknell's, Herne-hill.



WHITTINGTON'S ADAMS HOUSE, MIDDLESEX



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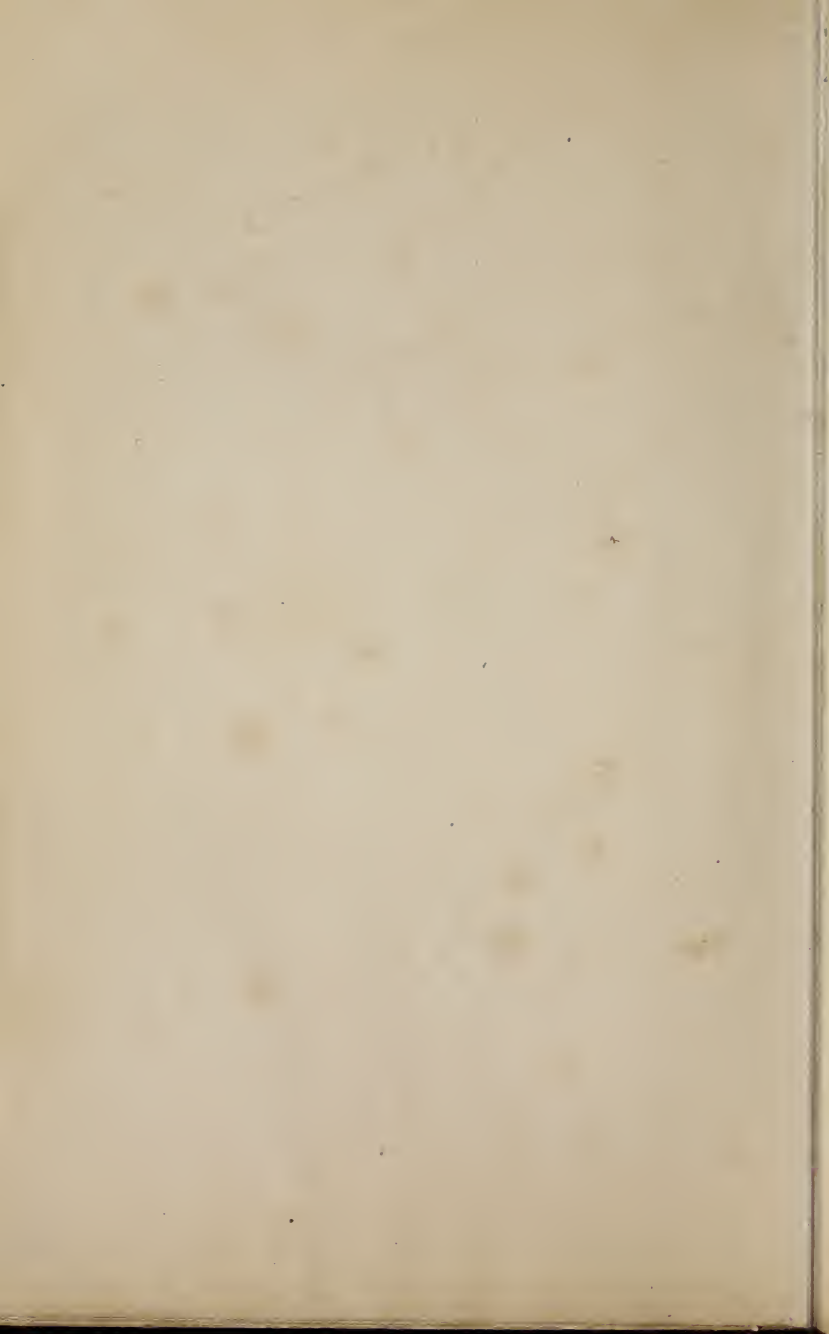
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